

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 26, 1872.

The Week.

WITH what must be called a very indecent regard for the feelings of Congressmen and a very indecent disregard for the public and the public service, a committee of the House of Representatives has been investigating the *Crédit Mobilier* business in secret and with closed doors. This concealment has naturally caused the circulation of a score of rumors which may be true or may be false; which leave everybody in uncomfortable doubt as to the real character of half a dozen men of whom everybody has thought well and would like to continue to think well. They are stories which, of course, no one has the right to believe, however badly the closed doors look. As for the scandal in general, no matter what partisan journals were saying about it two months ago, we suppose there was not then an editorial writer on the American press, and that there is not one to-day, who would not have instantly privately admitted to a friend that he had not the slightest morsel of doubt that Mr. Oakes Ames had tried to bribe certain members of Congress, and that some of them he had actually bribed. For our own part, we never believed that he had bribed General Garfield, for instance, to name one of the gentlemen accused, or that he could do so; but there are probably members with whom he had all the desired success, and it is for the plain interest of every good man in Congress, every member who is in politics with an honorable ambition—and there are some such—to demand full publicity and a report that means business. One of the tales that is told is to the effect that General Butler—whose element is dirty water—has got possession of the committee's secrets by means of a creature of his for whom he procured an appointment as a clerk to the committee. No one supposes that there will be any real secrecy about the affair, though the general public may never get a full and official report of the truth, and it is of little consequence whether the story is true or untrue. It reminds one, however, of the days of the barrel of telegrams, when a wise Congress placed the secrets of a whole community in the hands of this same Butler, who would have only to buy the same knowledge from detectives whom he would have paid with his own money.

The Massachusetts Legislature has passed a vote of censure on Mr. Sumner because of his resolution about striking the names of the battles in our late war off the regimental flags. The proposal was an insult to the loyal soldier, the Legislature declared. The debate was warm, but the vote not very heavy, the members in many instances performing the trick called "dodging"—a device which would have delighted Governor Endicott, for instance, and a most noble device it is. To us it seems that the Legislature might have found more profitable employment than attacking Senator Sumner just at present, especially as the same rather weak proposal was made by him some years ago, and such things have indeed always been to be expected. Besides, to charge Mr. Sumner with any wish to insult the Northern soldier is, on the face of it, absurd, and the whole affair is an indication of the degree of heat that is always, even in quiet times, in existence in the small politics of our State-houses. For the other things, too, Massachusetts politics have for the moment a national interest, which is real, though rather languid. Mr. Boutwell has indicated his determination to seek the senatorship, which it is thought he will be able to get, though of a contest such as will go on there the result is not wholly easy to predict. When one candidate has all but strength enough to carry him through, but not quite enough, and there is vigilance of opposition and numerous candidates, the candidate who comes out first may

be the one with the apparent best chances, or he may not. Both Judge Hoar and his brother are reported to be candidates, and so are Governor Claflin and Governor Rice and Mr. Dawes. But the rumors of which we have spoken elsewhere, and which are busily disseminated by interested people now, connect Mr. Dawes's name very definitely with the *Crédit Mobilier* corruption, and that is a very dark business, especially for a candidate who has tepid and respectful friends, rather than enthusiastic friends, to work for him. We shall hope that the prize may fall to Mr. Boutwell. It would take him out of the Treasury, at all events.

The other good thing in Massachusetts politics is the selection of Mr. Henry Pierce as mayor of Boston. He occupied in the contest a position which unfortunately is rare. Dissatisfied with Mr. Gaston, the people asked for a change, and the great fire disposed them to wish for an able, capable man, and to care not so much as usual for party lines. But the Republican party in Boston is, as it is elsewhere, a highly organized machine, with its Postmaster, and its Federal Collector of Customs, and its State Committees, and its captains of tens, and its captains of fifties, and its galley-slaves, and its party lashes. The regular convention, then still hoarse over their victory in November, and secure of their game, declared that "good Republicans" only should go on the ticket for city officers, and nominated Mr. Pierce. Mr. Pierce declined, and announced as his reason that he was opposed to their views of fitness. This surprised and disgusted these gentry, and cost Mr. Pierce some of their votes, but, as always comes to them sooner or later, they have been permitted to do that thing which they like so much, and "have bowed to the popular will." Some of them bowed in the orthodox manner—that is to say, they first stuffed some of the ballot-boxes of the people with votes cast by an imaginary and non-existent people, which has no will; the people with a capital P, probably. A recount of the votes, however, shows the frauds to have been committed, and Mr. Pierce to have been elected over Mr. Gaston by a small majority. The reform aldermen are also elected in most instances, the Boston press having used some unexpectedly plain language, and, we doubt not, affected the result decidedly.

The familiar old French Spoliation Claims are once more before Congress, their sponsor this time being Senator Cameron, and a little debate has been held upon them. It was principally interesting because the Geneva award came in for a share of the discussion, and because it seemed to indicate that the friends of the bill may be intending to defer the distribution of the *Alabama* money by tacking on their bill to that which will regulate the payment of the Geneva award. As we expected, several honorable senators, notably the Hon. Mr. Morton of Indiana, were clear in their own minds, or had "some doubt," which we may expect to see crystallize into certainty, that any insurance company is a mere rascal which intends to come forward and put in claims on the ground that the gentlemen composing it insured A.'s ship for \$30,000; that for this insurance A. paid a certain premium; that at the end of a certain time the gentlemen of the company paid A. the thirty thousand dollars of their money, his ship having been burned by the *Alabama*. We agree with Mr. Morton that some men there are who have a peculiar genius for fraud, and who are never really happy unless they are engaged in a swindle. Sometimes it is insurance men; sometimes it is Western lawyers and politicians; now it is a lawyer who wishes the United States to pay paper when it has solemnly agreed to pay gold, and who has cost his country millions or hundreds of millions by lowering her credit; now it is a Western lawyer and politician who wishes to cheat such of his fellow-citizens as happened to be in the business of marine insurance between 1861

and 1866. Mr. Butler, we see, has brought in a bill to regulate the disbursement of the fifteen and a half millions, and the correspondents say that he was so desirous of keeping it secret that he took it with his own hands to the public printer and had it privately printed. This he did, the same authorities inform us, because he did not wish the insurance companies to get any knowledge of the provisions of the bill, lest they should set up an opposition to its passage by the House. Here is Virtue again, who may always be found at Butler's elbow, when she is not at Morton's.

The money market during the week has been marked by nearly if not quite as much stringency as in the worst days of the "cornering" and "locking up" of Smith and Gould last September. Moreover, "Uncle" Boutwell, instead of coming to the relief of the community, aggravated the distress by a steady withdrawal of the \$5,000,000 of greenbacks which Mr. Richardson, the Assistant-Secretary, took upon himself to issue in October, so that the quasi-providential interference during the first "squeeze" not only did no good, but helped to bring on and aggravate this last one, showing clearly that when anybody undertakes to exercise the power of a protecting deity, he needs to have a deity's foresight and insight. We would also call the attention of the friends of the usury laws, or, in other words, of those who believe they know better at what rate money ought to be lent than the people who borrow it, to the fact that though the law of this State makes it a criminal offence to lend money at more than seven per cent. per annum, money has now for three months been systematically, openly, and notoriously lent by tens of millions in this city at rates varying from 50 to 350 per cent. per annum. The only effect of the usury laws is to keep a large class of lenders out of the market, and thus increase the scarcity of money, and to enable and oblige those who do lend to add to their rates in consideration of the risk. The only consolation which the friends of this mediæval contrivance have to offer to borrowers under these circumstances is that usurers are bad men, and ought to be ashamed of themselves. We ought to add that the difficulties in the way of the repeal of the usury laws in this State are two in number. The first is the absolute indifference of the New York Legislature, as now composed, to all questions of reform, and, indeed, all questions which do not relate to the distribution of money or power; and the second, and perhaps most formidable, the fixed belief of the farmers that it is the usury laws which enables them to borrow money on mortgage at seven per cent.

We are glad to say the "tightness" is producing a good deal of serious discussion of the remedy, and that opinion is inclining, not towards the plan of having "the Great Father" in Washington issue fresh paper every harvest, but towards the plan of having the banks allowed to supply the wants of the community on ordinary business principles. That the community knows better than the Great Father how much money it needs, and how long it needs it, is a proposition which lies at the basis of all sound currency and sound banking; and a necessary consequence of this is, that bankers or dealers in money are the proper persons to supply the demand. Under the law organizing the national banks, however, matters are so arranged that the power of the banks to lend is cut off whenever the need of the community becomes very intense. That is, besides securing their bills by the deposit of Government bonds at Washington, they are obliged to secure their depositors by keeping a reserve of 25 per cent. in greenbacks of all their liabilities; and, whenever the reserve falls below this amount, as it does during a "squeeze," and as it has done constantly during the last three months, they are forbidden to make any new loans or discounts, or in any way increase their liabilities, or to divide any profits. In short, their power of giving relief is peremptorily cut off at the moment relief is most needed, and there is now

a growing desire to have the banks freed from this restriction as to the reserve, and allowed to supply the community with money as it calls for it, under proper guarantees as to the redeemability of their paper, and have the Great Father at Washington mind his own business, and free his mind of all anxiety about "the moving of the crops."

The suit of the Erie Railroad against Jay Gould for \$9,000,000 has had a singular termination, in the restitution by Gould of property valued at \$6,000,000, if forced to sale, but at \$9,000,000 if properly handled. The proposition came from Gould himself, and was promptly accepted by the directors, and the proceedings abandoned. The newspapers denounce the Board fiercely for sacrificing the interests of justice to the interests of the road, and accuse them of "compounding a felony," and declare that Gould has made enough by the rise in stock to compensate him for his display of virtue. This last theory, however, is absurd; he could only have made comparatively a small sum by the rise in the stock. His motives it is difficult to speculate about profitably. They were, probably, as usual, mixed. Nobody who has watched a long and heavy litigation can believe that he had much to fear from the results of the lawsuit; but he is cowardly, fickle, and impressionable, and was probably sick of the Erie game, and intent on some other field of action. The conduct of the directors is not so easily passed on as it seems. They *might* have punished Gould severely in the courts, but the chances were against them, and they have now certainly fined him in an enormous sum.

Our Washington correspondent, who is a very competent and well-informed observer, but whose opinions we do not and probably shall not always share, gives some account of the state of feeling at the capital on the subject of civil-service reform which we believe to be substantially correct, and which the President and his friends would do well to take note of. It is widely believed, for instance, and by well-informed persons, that the gentleman appointed to the Philadelphia postmastership was really "Cameron's man," and the journey to Washington in the drawing-room car, and "the elegant hospitality" on the way, merely devices for throwing dust in the eyes of the civil-service reformers, but as long as Mr. Fairman was the right man, as we believe he was "under the rules," as well as in other ways, neither the President nor the public need care whether he was Cameron's protégé or not. But when the Chicago postmastership is given, as it has been, to "Logan's man," instead of to the Chief Assistant, the President's friends are wrong in supposing that it is a sufficient answer to the query which has been called forth, to say that the Chief Assistant declined the place, and that therefore the President was at full liberty to go outside the rules and seek his appointee where he pleased. For some time yet, we may be sure, Chief Assistant clerks will have so distinct a recollection of the old system that it will be quite easy to induce them to "decline the place" when it is wanted by certain gentlemen. And technically, the President has this liberty mentioned, but we think most intelligent people are of opinion that when he goes outside the rules, he ought to go in the spirit of the rules, and not recur to the old system. The question about the Chicago appointment is, therefore, not whether the President was free to make it, but whether he chose a good man. We do not say he did not, but we do say that his champions ought to say something on this point.

All this applies with lamentable force to the appointment of Mr. George Bliss as United States District Attorney in this city. This is not an office under the rules, but it is *par excellence* one the appointment to which the spirit of the rules should govern—that is, the person selected for it ought to be a lawyer of long and high standing; and, as his duties under the revenue laws and in other ways are semi-judicial in their character, he ought to be a man whose

ways of life inspire general confidence in his impartiality and integrity. We do not think Mr. Bliss will take it as offensive when we say that he by no means answers to this description. He is not a lawyer of high standing; he has little, if any, practice; he has for many years devoted his time and attention to the lower walks of New York politics; he has long been the confidential friend, and adviser, and coadjutor of "Tom" Murphy in the business of "controlling primaries" in this city; he is the chief manager of the Custom-house party, in all its intrigues and little games; and his appointment is considered—we are not afraid to say this—by the best portion of the bar little short of discreditable. Moreover, it is generally believed that it is part of the disgraceful intrigue with Mayor Hall, under which this worthy has been appointing "Republicans" of the Custom-house faction to various city offices, in order to tie Mr. Havemeyer's hands; Mr. Delafield Smith having been put into the Corporation Counsellorship to make way for Mr. Bliss's happy accession to the District-Attorneyship. Don't tell us that "the new rules" don't apply here; we know they don't. But there are very *old* rules which *do* apply, and particularly that old rule which requires that a United States District Attorney in a great commercial city should be at least a good and experienced lawyer.

The latest contribution to the literature of the civil-service reform comes from Mr. Thurlow Weed, who, as might be expected from his antecedents, is opposed to it. He believes the new rules, if carried out, will convert the Departments in Washington and the Custom-houses and Post-offices "into close corporations." What is worse than this is, that if they are enforced, the President, when a "vacancy occurs in an important office," instead "of being able to cast his eye over the Union to find the most capable and deserving man, is required to appoint a subordinate." He asks, moreover, if the civil-service rules had prevailed at the close of the war, "what would have been the fate of several thousand wounded Union soldiers who, as a reward for their patriotism and gallantry, are now usefully employed in our custom-houses and post-offices?"—just as Mr. Boutwell might ask what would become of the young ministers and doctors whom he is training up in the Treasury Department. He declares "that if the people have not a right to compete for the honors and emoluments of office, republican institutions are a sham and a fraud."

This is very curious reading, the fact being that the old system of appointment to office denies the right of competition for office to the people as completely as it was denied to the French people under the old régime, and no person knows this better than Mr. Weed. When an American citizen wants an office now, far from "competing" for it, he "works" for Logan, or Conkling, or some member of Congress, or in some manner begs his favor. Moreover, when an important office is vacant, the President does not, or did "not cast his eye over the Union, in search of an honest and capable officer"; he "casts his eye" on the senator or representative from the district, and says, in the language of the period, "Who's to have it?" and the representative or senator mentions the name, and the nominee gets it. An old politician never gets so near talking downright poetry as when he rolls his eyes and begins describing the present system of appointments to office. Mr. Weed thinks Jefferson's plan of selecting offices—by asking, "Is he honest? is he capable? is he faithful to the Constitution?"—the best, which reminds us of the old gentleman in the West, who declared that he was sick of the fuss of Presidential contests, and asked, "Why can't people agree at once upon the best man, and make *him* President?"

We should be glad if we could call the close attention of Congressmen to the report, written by the Hon. Nathaniel Niles of New Jersey, one of the gentlemen who were appointed to make the annual visit to the Annapolis Naval Academy. It is the minority report, but four points it makes which are really of great importance, and merely to state them appears to us to be

sufficient: (1) The midshipmen there certainly ought to have sufficient instruction in French; and this they can much better get if the elder boys are forced to pursue some of their studies in French text-books. This method is in successful operation in Harvard College, and is really admirable in its effects. (2) As being youths who hereafter, in foreign ports and on the high seas, will have to perform for the United States very delicate international duties, it is of great importance that they should have very thorough instruction in international law. The instructor should be a sound and perfectly competent student. This teaching has hitherto been done by gentlemen of capacity indeed, but who would not themselves pronounce themselves competent. At present, for instance, if we are not mistaken, the instructor in rhetoric happens to have this important work put upon him. (3) The chaplain, Mr. Niles thinks, should be left free to perform his strictly pastoral duties, and the boys should be permitted to hear the preaching of distinguished divines of various denominations, who should preach for nothing, and have their travelling expenses paid by the Government. (4) The houses built by the Government for the accommodation of the officers resident should not be occupied by civilians to the exclusion of such officers. The two first of these points are surely very important, and all are very easy of settlement.

There is probably no kind of "story" or "report" that the New York correspondents of the country papers enjoy so much inventing, compiling, or despatching, as a story or report about the doings of the New York editors. The death of Horace Greeley was, therefore, a perfect godsend to them, as it introduced great uncertainty into the affairs of a leading paper, and furnished the raw material for a thousand rumors. We believe "the crisis" is now over, and that we are not guilty of any impertinence in saying that there has been a vigorous contest for the control of the *Tribune*, in which certain capitalists, represented by Mr. Orton, the President of the Western Union Telegraph, formed one side, and the actual editorial corps, or leading members of it, the other. The Orton party were at first victorious, and purchased fifty-one shares for \$500,000 or thereabouts, and endeavored to procure Mr. Schuyler Colfax as editor, under whose guidance the paper was to be led gently back into the Republican fold, and the subscriptions to the *Weekly Tribune*, which now begin to fall due, be saved, and the support of the postmasters taken away from the *New York Times*, which at present enjoys it. The negotiations with Mr. Colfax, however, failed, and nobody else with sufficient political reputation for the performance of the job of rehabilitation offered, and under these circumstances the paper became "an elephant" on Mr. Orton's hands. The editorial party then rallied once more, and bought the controlling interest back at an advance, and are now in full possession.

Whether they will try to get back into the bosom of the party and the good graces of the postmasters, or go forth to seek their fortune in the wilds of "independent journalism," remains to be seen. The former course would doubtless be the better course pecuniarily, but also the meaner, and less likely to succeed in the long run. The latter might not pay so well at first, but would pay tenfold better in the end. They print at the head of their columns Horace Greeley's expression of satisfaction at having established the *Tribune*. If they will print also the programme for the conduct of the *Tribune* which he issued two days after the election, and keep it standing, and live up to it, they will confer one of the highest benefits on American politics and society which it is now in the power of a journalist to bestow, and will have the hearty sympathy of all honest and patriotic men. The paper has ever since November 6th been a model of decorum, and the decorum has certainly not diminished its vigor, and has not prevented its being—we think we may say—much in advance of all its daily contemporaries in the fulness and arrangement of its news, as well as in the selection of topics of discussion. Why in the name of wonder can we not have a continuance of this decency and common sense?

THE PRESIDENTIAL INTERFERENCE AT THE SOUTH.

WE presume people are not generally satisfied with the condition of the South, and there are numerous signs that the most ardent friends of the Enforcement Act begin to doubt its value very seriously. Passing such an act for the purpose of suppressing Ku-klux outrages they begin to see somewhat resembled the amputation of a limb in order to get rid of a boil. The Ku-kluxery, if that be the proper term, has been suppressed; but the indirect effects of the measure, which are the ones which it is most difficult to get an average politician to bestow any thought upon, now begin to show themselves. One of the very first was, of course, to arm the Federal Government with enormous power over the State government—power such as it had never possessed before. As we pointed out in these columns at the time of its passage, it “declared that to be ‘a rebellion against the United States’ which was nothing more than violence to individuals, and permitted the writ of habeas corpus to be suspended in time of peace; it authorized the President to employ the military forces in suppressing opposition to the State law, without an application from the State authorities; it extended the prohibitions of the Fourteenth Amendment to cases of private wrong; and clothed the national courts with jurisdiction over ordinary crimes and with the function of ordinary police repression.” When we said all this, it was mere theory or prediction; we now see it verified in practice. The act has actually converted the General Government into a supreme arbiter of State affairs at the South, and has taught the factions which in nearly every Southern State are contending for the possession of the treasury to disregard the local public opinion and the State constitution and laws, and look to Washington for the means for overcoming their opponents. The worst of this is, too, that the General Government does not interfere under some clearly defined code of procedure, but in the exercise of a vast semi-military discretion, which makes all things seem possible to the adventurers by whom the South is plundered. The condition of politics in that region at this moment bears a close and striking resemblance to that of the Spanish-American republics, inasmuch as in both two sets of adventurers are constantly striving for the mastery, and in their striving totally disregard the local opinion and the laws. In South America, however, they speedily take arms and end their quarrels by civil war; things do not reach this pass in our Southern States solely because the President stands ready to interfere, as soon as the parties prepare to come to blows; but if there were a power south of the Rio Grande which would prevent the politicians of that region from killing each other, public life in that region would closely resemble public life in our own States lately in rebellion.

This readiness of the President to interfere, however, so far from moderating the rage of the contestants, and turning their attention to the peaceful arts, stimulates their zeal, and increases their indifference to the regular and lawful modes of getting and keeping power. There is little hope of their spending their time in persuading their fellow-citizens into support of them, or coming to terms with their enemies, when they feel that a visit to Washington, or success in getting “the custom-house party” on their side, may give them all they want in the twinkling of an eye. There is a quarrel in Alabama about the election of the State Legislature—that is, the lawfulness of the count is disputed; and two bodies, each calling itself the State Legislature, meet in the capital, each hurling defiance at the other, South American fashion. If such a thing occurred at the North, the settlement would be sought through the State courts, or (more probably) the politicians engaged in the conflict would know so well the effect their performances would have on the public mind, that one set would give way, or some other mode of adjusting the difference be found. In Alabama, however, neither the State courts nor the local opinion count for anything in the matter; the whole difference is laid before the United States Attorney-General, and he supplies a *modus vivendi*, in an opinion which is accepted as law, because it is known that it may be backed, if the President gets his blood up, by Federal

bayonets. So also in Louisiana there is a dispute about the election of Governor and Legislature between two sets of rascally adventurers, who carry it on with reckless disregard of local public opinion; and it is again in due course carried before a Federal judge, who actually restrains by an injunction the State board of canvassers from counting the votes, and before the President, who, without any formal enquiry into the facts, promptly recognizes as the real State government the party most friendly to the Administration, and promises it through the Attorney-General that it will be, if necessary, supported with military force—this, too, being the party which contains General Grant’s brother-in-law, Casey, as one of its chief men; and this Casey being a United States official, who last year used a United States revenue cutter for twelve days in carrying members of the Legislature out of reach of the lawful pursuit of the sergeant-at-arms. It is to be observed also that the section from which Judge Durell professes to have derived his authority to interfere simply gives any person who may have been denied the right to vote or hold office on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude, the power of bringing “an appropriate suit or proceeding to recover possession of the office,” and gives the United States courts jurisdiction of all offences committed against the provisions of the act. On this we see within one short year a subordinate judge builds up the right to control a State election, and he issues his injunction against the State government with as little ceremony as if it were a mere “board” of supervisors or of charities and correction.

There is one other point to which we wish to call the earnest attention of our readers. There can hardly devolve on the Executive branch of the United States Government a graver or more delicate task than that of deciding which of two bodies claiming to be the government of a State is the lawful one. It is a task which the President is sometimes forced to perform, but which he ought to avoid performing as long as he can, so that the people of the State may have every possible chance of performing it for themselves, for it is emphatically their concern. He ought not, however, under any circumstances, to undertake it lightly or hastily, or without making, for his own justification and for the information of the public, a full statement of the reasons which have governed him in his decision, and of the sources from which he has derived his knowledge of the facts. In the Louisiana affair, however, President Grant has acted hastily, appears to have made no proper enquiry, and has offered no public justification of his course. Moreover, a body of highly respectable citizens of the State, who do represent its real people and its real interests, have since visited him at Washington and begged him to make a formal investigation of the facts, instead of (they might have said, and probably wished to say) relying on the telegrams of one of the factions at New Orleans. He informed them very curtly that he would do nothing of the kind; that he had no funds for the purpose, and, at all events, had made his decision, and would not now reverse it.

The effect of all this on the South will, we fear, be to accelerate the social and political disorganization, and assimilate the other States more and more to South Carolina, in which there are distinct signs that the intelligent and respectable class have lost heart, and hope with regard to political reform, and are adopting what is so often the resource even of good men in bad times, the pursuit of their share of the plunder, or, in other words, are trying to secure what they can of material wealth from the general wreck of moral and social interests. The probable effect on the Government of the United States we hope we do not need to point out. Such phenomena as those on which we have been commenting, and as the issue of paper money on his own responsibility by the Assistant-Secretary of the Treasury, however, are signs of progress on a path of which everybody can see the issue if he likes to examine it.

WHAT SHALL BE DONE ABOUT OUR FIFTEEN AND A HALF MILLIONS?

IT was decided at Geneva that whatever sum might be awarded by the Tribunal should be paid within one year from the date of

the award. During or before next September, then, the fifteen and a half millions will be paid over to us, and it behoves us to consider what disposition shall be made of it. Already we see in the newspapers articles which have been written from various points of view, and some of which will have a tendency to becloud the minds of the public, although a little attentive consideration of the case makes it, as we think, perfectly clear. And at the beginning we may say a word on one or two points as to which a good deal has been said, and about which there is still some misunderstanding.

The basis of our demand and of the subsequent award was a vast mass of claims filed at the State Department. How numerous and voluminous was this mass the reader will understand when we say that we have before us a volume which may be regarded as merely the bare index to the claims presented, for it names each claim with the utmost brevity, and appends the still briefer list of the documents relied upon to support the application, and yet it contains nearly 400 pages octavo. Here is a sample of its contents:

AUSTRALIA.—Bark *Australia* of Bath, Maine. Alfred Lemont, agent and managing owner. Was blockaded at the port of Adelaide, New Zealand, by the *Shenandoah*, and was in consequence compelled to be sold.

Total claim filed, \$22,500.

Claim.

| | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------|
| OWNERS. | |
| Loss of vessel..... | \$33,000 00 |
| Loss of outfit and expenses..... | 2,500 00 |
| | 35,500 00 |
| Less proceeds of forced sale..... | 13,000 00 |
| | 22,500 00 |

List of Papers.

OWNERS.
a, Letter from Lawson & Walker, presenting claim.

Such being the index, the size of the whole documentary mass may be inferred, and it will be seen how impossible it would have been for the United States, in the brief six months allowed for the work, to have gone into the merits of each claim presented, taken evidence, cut down exaggerated estimates, and presented at Geneva precisely the sum, no more and no less, which we meant to take. It was known that claims were exaggerated, and it was perfectly well understood that there would have to be a cutting down of the amount asked for by very many of the claimants. There was no call, then, for the charge of shamelessness and rapacity which was freely brought against our State Department by the English journals and some of the Continental. As to the severe criticism passed upon the greed of the individual applicants, much of that was of course entirely deserved; only it is necessary to remember, too, that a great deal of what wore the appearance of greed was in reality ignorance of law and of the rules governing liabilities. A comparatively uninformed man who for many voyages has secured an average of three hundred or four hundred barrels of whale-oil by following the North Pacific fisheries, may well enough be excused for thinking that the English ought to make good to him not only the value of his ship and outfit burned by the *Shenandoah*, but also pay him for the oil which, humanly speaking, he would have brought home had the *Shenandoah* never got away.

But, apart from the fact that the United States could not, in the time allowed for preparing our Case, have audited the immense number of claims presented, there is the other fact that the State Department had not the right to go into the business of auditing. In 1870, the President recommended Congress to appoint a commission for such an audit, preparatory to our own payment of the claims, and a bill looking to that end was in progress when Great Britain sent out her negotiators; but, upon the Treaty's being made, it was abandoned. The Treaty itself provided, that in case a lump sum was not awarded, the individual claims should go before a board of assessors, who should determine the amount to be paid in each case. Here then was a board of audit provided for, and the State Department confined itself during the short time at its disposal to arranging the claims for submission in an intelligible shape.

The tribunal of arbitration, as we all know, decided that all the claims by the United States for damages received as a nation should be rejected. No loss or damage, then, that was not individual remained; and the further question came up whether these losses

should be referred to an auditing board, or, on the other hand, a gross sum should be awarded. The latter course was taken, and the amount was set at \$15,500,000, or about four and a half millions less than was contended for by the United States. Just how this particular result was arrived at no one is supposed to know. More or less of desultory statement was made in the British argument as to the probable degree of exaggeration in the estimates of losses incurred, and the fifteen and a half millions were awarded as the sum, principal and interest, which would cover everything; and it is held by well-informed people that it probably may very nearly do so. The question now is, as we have already said, What shall we do with it when we get it? Are we to pay any of it to the insurance companies which got heavy premiums for insuring vessels, or shall we turn it over to the owners? Are we not in danger of giving some of it to speculators who have bought up claims at nominal rates and whose demands are iniquitous? May not the United States justly lay hold of a certain portion of it?

Of these questions, the most important and one over which there is the best opportunity for a little muddle is that relating to the insurance companies. Not many men except a professional Watch-Dog of the Treasury with an ignorant constituency behind him, or Mr. George S. Boutwell, will be apt to think honestly and truly that the United States—which were expressly declared to have no claims of their own tenable before the tribunal—can have any shadow of right to a dollar. As to a possible change of hands on the part of some of the claims, there is no evidence adduced that any such transfer has taken place, and there is high probability that very little has been done in the way of purchase and sale. The owners of claims have had very good reason to be hopeful ever since their losses were incurred, and even to be sanguine, as they have tolerably well shown by the size of the bills they sent in as soon as an opportunity was afforded them.

As for the insurance companies, an opinion in regard to their right in the matter used to be current in high quarters in Washington which deserves full rank with that other opinion, that "the gold in our Western mountains" was somehow or other going to rise in its might and pay the national debt; or that still other opinion, that an American citizen for whose property at sea the Government failed to find protection was a traitor and a villain if he secured a French, or German, or British registry for his vessel; or that equally valuable opinion, that a bull-headed paying of the national notes not yet due is a sensible financial policy for a practical people which has out other notes overdue and gone to protest. It is, or rather it was, believed in Washington by many Congressmen, that in case the tribunal awarded money to America, no part of it should be paid to such Americans as had been in the insurance business during the war, taking risks on shipping exposed to capture. It is true that no money at all was awarded which was not awarded to American citizens individually, and that to America as a claimant not a cent was given; but there are reasons for fearing that a certain number of our legislators may find easy excuses for believing, and acting on the belief, that "the insurance men made money enough," and that some others may sincerely persuade themselves that such action would be equitable. In truth, however, no principle in law is more firmly established, and, we may add, more firmly established on the durable foundation of strict justice, than that if any part of insured property is, after insurance has been paid over, recovered, such part shall, to the extent of the money paid over as insurance, become the property of the insurer and not of the insured. The mere statement of this proposition is the refutation of all propositions in any way contradictory, for its justice is obvious at a glance and to everybody. The man who insured his vessel while the hostile *Alabama* was afloat paid more for the security and ease of mind which he got—for his private state of peace, as we may call it, in the midst of surrounding war—than he paid for his security and ease of mind as regards the same vessel exposed only to the ordinary perils of wind and sea. What he bought, that he got; the transaction was of his own seeking; and, he being judge, the commodity purchased was worth the price paid

for it. In case his vessel was burned, the full value of her, if she was fully insured, was paid him by the men who guaranteed him against loss.

Here, by the bye, are some words to the point, spoken in the Court of Queen's Bench by Lord Chief-Justice Cockburn, one of the judges at Geneva who decided, among other things, upon the admissibility of claims presented by the insurance men as by other Americans: "Now I take it to be clearly established in the case of a total loss, that whatever remains of the vessel in the shape of salvage, or *whatever rights accrue to the owner of the thing insured and lost*, they pass to the underwriter the moment he is called upon to satisfy the exigency, and he does satisfy it." Our excuse for dwelling upon this point is, that we should be very glad to bespeak the effective attention of the press to such Congressmen as may attempt to curry favor with ignorant constituencies by a disregard of the plain dictates of justice in this affair. It is a favorable occasion for some of those gentlemen, the true pests of our politics, who seek their own aggrandizement at all times and at all costs, but who are never so congenially employed or so thoroughly delighted as when they can attain their own ends and at the same time debauch the conscience of the country. They might indeed be pleased if they could induce a majority of us—acting all the time in the interest of virtue, and in opposition to wicked speculators—to take a course precisely similar to that of urging the attorney of a successful plaintiff to keep in his own pocket the money which his employer, after much labor and waiting, had at last got from the men who had robbed him. And remembering several chapters in our history, it will easily appear that fear on this head is by no means out of place; we may yet see the United States, which have no possible title to any of the money under the award, and which have indeed been formally told that as for their alleged claims for damages the tribunal would give nothing to satisfy them—we may yet see the United States holding back the money of the insurance men on the same preposterous ground, and adding it to Mr. Boutwell's balance or making a worse use of it.

For the rest, we hope that the American board of assessors, soon to be appointed, will be able men. One, we suppose, ought to be a lawyer; but general business knowledge and ability, as well as some special knowledge and ability in the shipping business, would also seem to be very desirable, and the salary should be fixed at a figure that will secure these. The bill now in Congress does not do that, we should say, although we think it might well do so by doubling the sum named and halving the time during which the assessors shall sit. One would think, considering the amount of work already roughly done at Geneva, and got out of the way, that twelve months might be sufficient for the business.

THE ENGLISH LECTURERS.—III.

PROFESSOR TYNDALL.

EXACTLY how many thousand people the great cave-like hall beneath the Cooper Institute will conveniently hold we do not know, but, on the evening of to-day week, it was crowded in every part. In point of intelligence, also, it was a very good audience. In fact, we were then and there informed by Mr. Abram S. Hewitt, in a few brief remarks, that we certainly represented all the intelligence and culture of the city, if, indeed, we did not include it all. He had begun by saying that he would not inform Professor Tyndall how much this audience esteemed and honored him; but he would say of the audience that it was of the character we have just put on record. Then Professor Tyndall himself stepped forward. Behind him was the screen on which were to be shown the prismatic hues which called forth subdued exclamations of a gratification which, if not coldly scientific, if even scientific, was at all events sincere; in front of him was the electric light which was to be sent through the various prisms; to his right, and a little in the rear, was the assistant who managed the ordinary gas-works of the hall, much of the lectures having to be delivered in a dim, twilight light; to his left were two or three more assistants, and some machines used in the experiments; in the middle stood the professor in an attitude somewhat suggestive of the Irishman—if any of our readers know precisely what that means. It was not an attitude of bolt-uprightness; it was easy, and it was more

easy than graceful, if that remark may be permitted. But the fact is that of the many thousands who will attend the course, we may be sure that, for every score who go to hear the lecture, another score will go to see the lecturer and to gaze upon the pretty fireworks of the experiments. No account of a course of lectures which omitted some account of the personal appearance of the lecturer would be worth the money of a majority of those who would read it.

Certainly no one can listen to Prof. Tyndall or read his books without seeing that he is a very good teacher of scientific truth. He wastes no time on side issues, as, for instance, Mr. Max Müller is constantly doing, but keeps one's attention directly fastened to the core of the subject. He appears to have a very well outlined, distinct, vivid conception of the things that he knows, and his style of exposition leaves nothing to be desired so far as lucidity is concerned. We came to the conclusion, as we listened to the first of these lectures, and noted the faces about us, and conjectured whether or not much of the lecture was going over the heads of the auditors, that there were not many sentences which were not entirely comprehensible by a majority of the persons present. This is giving high praise to Professor Tyndall as a scientific man who can popularize science; for although we were perhaps an audience as representative as Mr. Hewitt assured us we were, there nevertheless were among us a certain number of persons who, previously to our assembling at the Institute, were not guilty of too much knowledge of the undulatory theory and the sine of the angle of reflection.

An American hearer will be likely to think that of all the English lecturers who have recently visited us, Professor Tyndall is, as a lecturer, very much the cleverest and most successful. Mr. Froude delivered lectures which were quite as brilliant in their different line as Professor Tyndall's are; but he delivered them in a way which the lyceum committee-man must have regarded with a good degree of bitter anguish. Exact as was the adaptation of his lectures to the platform, the platform is anything but Mr. Froude's native heath. Mr. George Macdonald appeared to us to make the mistake of supposing almost any sort of talk good enough for us masses over here; and as for his peculiar manner, we speak with all the civility that any hospitable fellow-citizen could require of us when we say that the manner of Mr. Macdonald's lecturing was entirely worthy of the matter. Mr. Yates, like Mr. Macdonald, had not sufficient knowledge of the American lyceum, and its intimate acquaintance with a great range of very accomplished speakers. But, coming to Professor Tyndall, we find that he lectures as well as any Yankee. He is entirely in earnest, and that the strenuous American likes to see; he makes his points really as plainly, if not so violently, as Mr. Wendell Phillips or the late Thomas Starr King; he is far from being insultingly obvious, yet he is as simple and intelligible as if he were teaching a class of beginners in a Normal School; the instructed are satisfied with what he says, and pleased with his workmanlike way of saying it, while to the young ladies he gives gorgeous exhibitions of color, which they freely admit to be most lovely, most splendid, and most nice. Even the policemen on duty are attentive, and the friends of "classical studies," except for their knowledge of the goodness of their cause and the impossibility of its overthrow, might fairly regard the pilgrimage of this captivating scientific teacher as a serious calamity.

This earnestness of manner in Prof. Tyndall will suggest to some of his hearers a topic which of late years has had much discussion, and on which respectable opinions vary. To some persons the ideal scientific mind is as absolutely indifferent to human interests as we may suppose the mind of the wise serpent to be. With it is associated no feeling whatever. It works, we may say, *in vacuo*. Professor Huxley preaching protoplasm, Professor Tyndall suggesting a prayer-gauge, appear to many of us quite as far from meriting such trust and credit and deference as may be due the truly scientific mind, as if each were roaming about the country clad in a suit of leather, denouncing woollens as godless, and swearing that the Inner Light had forbidden him to take off his hat except when he was by himself, and had ordained that he should say "thee" at such times as other people said "you." A sort of a "protracted meeting" variety of scientific man; an essentially unscientific man, is what such followers of science seem to some observers to be, and there is entertained towards them something of the same feeling with which nearly all men of our time regard the churchmen of three hundred years ago who thought it so important that everybody should hold their views of certain speculative matters that they honestly and industriously burned alive whatever men, women, and children differed from them. Science observes and compares, it is said, and does no dogmatism on matters which are to many people matters of opinion and dear belief; it is really as utterly unscientific in the true sense of the term "science" to say there was never such an event as the creation of Adam as it is to say with Parson Knak, of Berlin, that he is sure that the earth does not go round the sun, and knows that the sun does go over the world in a semicircular pathway, because that is

what the Bible tells him. That this view of the province of the scientific mind is one which ought to be insisted upon, nobody, we suppose, will think of denying; and it will as little be denied, we suppose, that, like most views of most matters, it is not exhaustive of the whole question, and that indispensable as it is, there is another view which also is indispensable, and in which is to be found the justification of such scientific observers as set themselves up to teach upon matters not scientific. The abstract scientific mind, separated and apart from some highly concrete man of science, with a human ancestry and an actual, probable, or possible human progeny, with a home, a country, friends, neighbors, appetites, desires, and aspirations, will always be rare. And that such human scientific men as may conceive themselves to have something to say on topics of universal concernment shall be required to hold their peace and not say it, is a proposition which, however often it may have been urged in substance, will not be urged in terms. A merely recording instrument we may be reasonably confident that no very capable human mind will ever become; and the world, which eventually judges of the scientific achievements of its instructors, will also judge as infallibly of their general achievements as well, and of their motives to work.

It is well to mention here that Professor Tyndall, we understand, intends to carry no money away with him from the United States. Whatever he receives over and above his expenses he means to hand over to some scientific body in this country.

THE NOVEMBER ATMOSPHERIC WAVE.

THE Department of Telegrams for the Benefit of Commerce is doing service to many not engaged in commerce by enlisting their interest in that one of the physical sciences which can be studied most cheaply and most healthfully. It is desirable that encouragement should be given for the publication in tabular form of the weather reports year by year; not of all the stations, for the promiscuousness of their situation would deprive the table of any graphic illustrative power, but of selected stations; as, let one list contain all stations in a given latitude arranged according to longitude, and another all stations in a given meridian arranged by latitudes; then the progress, eastward and northward respectively, of atmospheric phenomena would be clearly and compactly chronicled, and private hypotheses could be tested with a facility which would render such testing frequent and attractive. One such table would indicate more clearly than language can do the facts concerning the "November Atmospheric Wave" which lately swept over the United States, from west to east, suddenly substituting cold weather for mild. The newspaper accounts of this change have been very confused, some writers being evidently uncertain whether the "wave" was composed of wind, tide-water, snow, or meteors. It was really a freezing temperature attending the sudden annual transfer from the Pacific Ocean to our continent of one of those areas of cold, dense, heavy air which in summer cover all the oceans, and in winter cover all the continents.

Why this transfer takes place, why it is so sudden, and why its direction is eastward, can be clearly and separately shown.

The cause of the annual autumnal transfer from the oceans to the continents of the areas of cold descending air, and, it might be added, of the simultaneous transfer from the continents to the oceans of the regions of ascending warmer air, is the same as the cause of the movement of the equatorial belt of low barometer and rains southward in fall and northward in spring, viz., a change in the position of greatest relative heat. The temperature of the North Atlantic and Pacific Oceans (owing to their capacity for absorbing heat and cold) is nearly uniform throughout the year, changing less than 10 degrees each side of 50°; the temperature of the continents, on the other hand, varies extremely. In lat. 40° it may be called in round numbers 25° in winter and 75° in summer. There is thus a "steep gradient" of temperature along the coast lines in these extreme seasons. This difference is so great as to cause a constant ascension of air over the oceans in winter and over the continents in summer, accompanied by low pressure and rain; constant rain over the mid-oceans, occasional rains only (because of less material for evaporation) over the continents. In the transitional seasons the difference is less than 25°, but the very habit of descent keeps the regions where the air descends much cooler than those where air ascends, as long as other things are equal.

The cause of the suddenness and completeness of the transfer in November from the oceans to the continents of the region of descending cold air illustrates the principle that all influences conspire to help the winning side, embodied in the maxim, "It never rains but it pours." The change in the preponderance of temperature comes on so gradually that practically some decisive proximate cause is always the immediate occasion for the movement of the region of ascension from the United States to the North Atlantic, and of the region of descending air from the North Pacific to the Plains. But

when this removal has occurred, which never happens until some time after the land would naturally be colder than the water, that very principle of momentum which delayed the removal confirms it when established. The chief factor in this momentum is the fact that descending air is constantly (for reasons which need not be given here) increasing in capacity for moisture, which causes a steady disappearance of clouds, renders haze impossible, and thus uncovers the surface to unrestrained radiation into space and night; whereas the reverse is true of ascending air, which is constantly weaving blankets of haze with which to confine the sun's heat to the lower strata. (The Mt. Washington despatches have referred to the remarkable suddenness with which the atmosphere becomes loaded with haze in May, an occurrence which indicates that the continental air has begun reascending).

The decisive proximate cause of every sudden fall of temperature on land is believed to be the advent of a group of spots upon the sun's disc. Such an event occurring after the equilibrium of temperature had become unstable (and the longer it was delayed, the less quantity of spots would suffice to reverse the balance) would be the last feather that would break the back of the ascending bulk of air, and would definitively determine the transfer to the Atlantic of the place of greater relative heat, ascension, and storms. It is safe to say that the Boston fire was just in time to fall in with and perhaps facilitate this latter removal. Sixty acres of surface hot enough to melt metal may be an item in thermic calculations, at a time when the sun is only thirty degrees above the horizon at noon. (The Chicago fire was located so near the centre of the continent that it rather tended to prolong the season of ascending air.) The tide of cold last year did not reach New England until "Thanksgiving" time, and on that day the temperature was lower in Boston than on any day during the three winter months which followed. And it is quite possible that New Orleans may not experience a colder temperature this winter than 37°, the point to which the mercury suddenly fell there when the "wave" reached it on November 15.

The cause of the eastward motion of these semi-annual phenomena, as of all other elements of weather in the temperate zones, and of the westward movement within the tropics, will be clear only to those who understand why the water opposite our moon masses itself into a tide. Just as this water is left behind by the more rapid movement of the solid part of the earth toward the moon (because the solid part, averaged at the centre, is nearer the moon), so the air above the torrid zone is left behind by the more rapid westerly motion of the solid earth beneath it, and thus always appears to be itself moving from the east (trade wind). For the atmosphere rotates (by a force which is known, but need not here be stated) independently of the earth and independently one portion of another; while the earth must move altogether; and thus the surface of the torrid zone moves faster, and the temperate zones slower, than either would move if liquid or independent of its neighbors. The average velocity of rotation is near latitude 30°, where air and earth move at equal pace. North of this latitude we may regard our prevailing westerly winds as (approximately) illustrating a more natural rate of rotation, while we are retarded by being so near the axis—approximately merely, for the enormously superior friction of solid over gas compels the atmosphere to conform almost entirely to the velocity of the surface. All extensive atmospheric phenomena, then, must in the temperate zones move from west to east (unless propagated backwards, as frequently happens, but not in relation to this topic) along with the air in which they are involved. Hence a movement from an ocean to a continent will always be directed towards the continent next east of the ocean. Other causes conspire with the one above stated, but this is the most comprehensive cause.

Two explanations will render more receivable the above statements: first, it is true that even in winter our idea of the ocean is an idea of something bleak and cold, and east winds seem to many persons chillier than west winds, and water always seems colder than air. This is merely because water conducts heat so much faster than air. Still water at 50° cools the hand more than calm air at zero; so a sea-wind loaded with moisture at 50° may cool the skin faster than a dry west wind at 25°. But this effect upon the feelings does not correspond to any depressing effect upon the superior ascensive tendency of ocean air at 50° over land air at 25°. The currents obey the thermometer, not men's nerves. Secondly, when the phrases "ascending" and "descending" are applied to currents of air, it is not asserted that such currents do nothing else but go up or down, but these movements are predicated of them in conjunction with other motions; thus, an ascending current is also moving inwards towards a place of lowest pressure in a circle of low barometer, and it is also moving rapidly around this circle; in fact, for every rod that it ascends it probably moves ten rods convergently and a hundred rods around the helix.

One easy inference from the fact that in winter the oceans are areas of comparatively warm air low pressure, and consequent spirally converging

winds is worth stating. It follows from the law of spiral convergence of wind around low pressures that the wind is always northerly to the left of areas of lowest pressure and southerly on the right of the same. Applying this to the oceans, we have prevailing northerly winds (NW) on their west-coast lines and southerly winds on their easterly coasts all winter, which winds *double the cold on the west coasts*, but mitigate it on the opposite coasts. Applying this fact to our continent, we find in winter, on the Atlantic coast, northerly winds prevailing, but, on the Pacific coast, southerly; while in summer, when the area of low pressure is over the continent, southerly winds on our coast and northerly on the Pacific, thus moderating both seasons on the Pacific coast, and intensifying both on the Atlantic. The same is true of the Old Continent. Every "cold snap" in winter causes an increase of the central storm over the Atlantic, bringing north-west winds to us and south winds to Europe, thus rendering their winter so moderate that oranges, olives, and figs can survive it in Italy and Spain at a latitude no further south than that of New England. Hence our forefathers committed a grave meteorological blunder in crossing the ocean. It is on an east coast and not on a west one that "the land of promise" and "the joy of the whole earth" are situated.

THE UNDERCURRENT AT WASHINGTON.

WASHINGTON, December 21, 1872.

THE enemies of civil-service reform in Congress are taking courage. To be sure, the opening of the war by Representative Snapp in the House was not strikingly effective; although Mr. Snapp, in his droll way, gave a fair summary of the staple arguments against the reform, he certainly failed to convince anybody not already convinced. It was more a characteristic demonstration of Mr. Snapp's high spirit. But the impression is gaining ground that the President's determination to carry out the new civil-service rules, however emphatically it may be expressed, does not mean much after all. This impression is strengthened by the fact that the rules were set aside in the appointment, upon political recommendation, of a postmaster at Chicago, and that of several other persons who would not have been chosen for responsible positions by an Administration sincerely favoring reform. Prominent among the latter class stands the case of Mr. Bliss, of New York, who has been appointed United States District Attorney; the same gentleman, known as "Decoy Bliss," who last winter acted as "counsel for the defendants" before the Retrenchment Committee of the Senate in the investigation of the abuses of the New York Custom-house. It is thought that the reform zeal of an Administration appointing such a man to such a place has not passed beyond the control of politicians, and that the hateful civil-service regulations may receive an endorsement by Congress without seriously disturbing the time-honored spoils system. This feeling, however, will not prevent the enemies of reform from doing their best to kill the whole scheme in Congress, as soon as they find an opportunity to do so, especially as they believe that they will not incur the displeasure of the Administration by making the effort.

Senator Carpenter has given notice of his intention to make a speech on his bill authorizing the Federal courts to condemn property in the States for the use of the General Government. On that occasion, according to current report, he will try to convince the country that the powers of the General Government under the Constitution are much larger, and that much more may constitutionally be done in the way of centralization, than has been generally supposed by the common run of people. Such a speech will open a vast subject, and a general debate on constitutional principles and the state of the country is likely to follow, at least when Mr. Carpenter's bill is reported back from the Judiciary Committee. Mr. Carpenter is also credited with saying that now, after its tremendous success in the late Presidential election, the Republican party is sure to remain in power for at least a generation, and that, there being no organized opposition to contest its ascendancy, it may without danger do pretty much as it pleases. Superficial and positively foolish as such a way of reasoning may appear to every impartial observer of human affairs, yet it is quoted in Administration circles as an emanation of profound wisdom, and I have heard it gravely repeated at least a dozen times as a truth above question. It is a fair indication of the spirit which prevails among the party managers, who think of making themselves comfortable by as extensive an assumption of power as possible. The fact that no severe attack has so far been made upon the "apostates" is explained on the same theory; the majority feel themselves so firmly seated in power that they can safely ignore the opposition. An exception to this rule, however, is made in the case of Mr. Sumner, who, with his proposition to remove the names of the battles of the civil war from the Army Register and the regimental colors, threatened to lay violent hands on the only political capital of so many celebrities of the day. With

Mr. Sumner this matter is not new. He presented in the Senate a similar proposition in 1862, and, although it was not acted upon, it did not draw anybody's wrath upon his head. It is said that Gen. Scott highly commended it at the time. But now the same thing is vociferously denounced as a gross insult to the soldiers of the Union, and some Republican senators are reported to have considered it an intolerable disgrace that such a bill should lie on the table of the Senate. It was, intended, therefore, to call it up and dispose of it even before Mr. Sumner was ready to make the speech of which he had given notice, and the delivery of which he put off on account of the precarious condition of his health. It was for the purpose of having the matter before the Senate, independently of Mr. Sumner's bill, that a resolution was introduced and passed in the House of Representatives, the purpose of which is to strengthen the Union sentiment of the country by keeping alive the memories of the civil war. But the postponement of the matter until after the holidays was at last agreed upon, and then we may look for a grand explosion of patriotic eloquence on the part of those who will lose no opportunity to "fire the Northern heart," and to reanimate the war feeling, which politically has been found so useful. On the other hand, I learn that even those who approve of the spirit of Mr. Sumner's bill regret its introduction as untimely, and would rather not have any discussion of such topics at the present moment. But the House resolution would render such a discussion inevitable, even if Mr. Sumner were inclined to withdraw his bill, which, however, he is not.

The recommendations made by the President in his Message looking to a vast system of internal improvements, receive more attention than was expected at the beginning of the session. The subject is being privately discussed from two points of view. Many senators and representatives from the West say that greater facilities of transportation are needed between the West and the seaboard for "moving the crops," at the same time admitting that an enlarged system of railroads would in this respect be preferable to the system of canals recommended by the President. But the matter is also looked at in its political aspect, and, while some of our leading politicians were at first a little frightened by the vast expense with which the execution of the President's projects would burden the people, others maintain that a government and a party gain strength by scattering large sums of money among the masses, and nothing would, therefore, in the end be better calculated to fortify the party in power than a vast and expensive system of internal improvements; in other words, that there would be not only jobs, but also votes in it. The appointment of a special committee in the Senate to collect information and report upon the President's recommendations seems to indicate that the matter is to be taken in hand in good earnest. Mr. Windom, of Minnesota, who was appointed chairman of that Committee, has the reputation of being a sensible and honest man; but you may rest assured, when the subject comes up for action, you will find those who are in favor of the largest political corruption funds also in favor of the largest system of internal improvements.

Scarcely a word has been spoken yet in either House of Congress about the startling events in Louisiana. There is a variety of reasons for this apparently strange silence. The regular Administration men do not deem it necessary to say anything as long as the interests of the party are served, and thus, in the Louisiana case, they let well enough alone. There are many honest and thoughtful men among the Republicans in Congress who feel alarmed and shake their heads at the proceedings of the Federal authorities, but fear to speak lest they be classed with the Opposition. And the Opposition think that their advice will not be listened to by those in authority, and that in view of the indifference with which the events in question are received by public opinion, their warnings would remain unheeded by the people. So far, there has been on all sides a certain reluctance to touch the case. But it may force itself at any moment into the discussions of Congress, especially if the appeal to the people, which is intended by the Citizens' Committee from New Orleans, should meet with any response in the country. There is a strained and uneasy feeling in political circles here which renders it very uncertain whether this session, which so far has been devoted to the quiet transaction of current business, will close without an explosion of excitement. It will depend somewhat upon the impressions members of Congress bring back with them from the contact with their constituents during the holidays.

THE CRISIS IN FRANCE.

PARIS, Dec. 6, 1872.

I HAVE often wondered at the curious incapacity of the English mind to understand the political circumstances of other countries than England.

Everybody remembers the strange mistakes of the English press and of English statesmen at the time of the great American war. Though the community of race, of origin, of language, and to a great extent of institutions, ought to have helped the English leaders of opinion to appreciate the true character and the probable results of the struggle between the North and the South, they seemed more bewildered and they were led further from the truth than German, Russian, Italian, or French observers. England and France lie so close together that England ought to understand French affairs almost as well as her home politics; and it cannot be said that there is any negligence on the part of her press in keeping the English public informed of the incidents of French politics. The Paris correspondents fill now half the pages of the English journals; every night a long telegram is sent to the *Times* by "Our Special Correspondent," and the great city paper publishes besides long letters of "Our Own" and of "Our Parisian" correspondents. The paper which has "the largest circulation in the world" (I mean the *Telegraph*) has now a magnificent office on the square of the New Opera. The *Times* has informed its readers every day during the summer, with the minutest details, of all the "movements" of M. Thiers. Every English farmer knew when Princess Troubetzkoi breakfasted at the cottage where the President spent the vacation-days; when Charles Sumner was received as a guest; when Timaschef, the Russian Minister of the Interior, had the honor of dining with M. Thiers; how many times M. Thiers sat for his picture, how often for his bust. Two active correspondents of the *Times*, Lawrence Oliphant and M. Blowitz, go everywhere, see everybody; they are ubiquitous. Their assumed neutrality allows them to run to Lucerne, when the Count of Chambord is holding a levee, to interview the Princes of Orleans, to closet themselves almost daily with M. Thiers himself, to see all the leaders of the Opposition. They can see Gambetta in the morning and Bishop Dupanloup in the evening, Count d'Arnim one day and the next day General Chanzy or Ducrot; and, with such golden opportunities, it is hardly conceivable that the *Times* should not have a clear perception of men and things.

It has, however, distinctly invited M. Thiers, for several days past, to extricate himself from his present difficulties by a *coup d'état*, and to force a dissolution on the Chamber. Now M. Thiers is not at all in the position of a constitutional king; and even in constitutional countries the royal right of dissolution has been practically abolished, and the power of dissolution remains only in the hands of a Cabinet, chosen from the majority of the House of Commons, but which thinks that its majority has become so weakened that an appeal to the country has become a necessity. But M. Thiers, who is a mere delegate of the National and Sovereign Assembly, has no more right to dissolve the Chamber than I have to dissolve the House of Commons. It is at least singular that, when all is in confusion in France, when the only legal power in existence is the Assembly which concluded peace, when the Communists are openly talking of taking their revenge on the Chamber, the paper which pretends to represent an old aristocratic, monarchical, and parliamentary country should daily boldly advise M. Thiers to recommence a Second of December.* M. Thiers has said himself, in his last speech, that if he made an appeal to the army, the army would only answer him with horror and disgust; whatever may be his defects, and I have never been over-indulgent to them, he will never become a vulgar conspirator and plunge his country in the deplorable condition of Spain. What can be the object of the *Times* in insulting France, M. Thiers, and the Assembly in the way it has done lately? We remember well that Napoleon III., after his *coup d'état*, thought it necessary to enter at once into common action with England against Russia. Kinglake has, with great reason, given a place to the 2d of December among the causes of the Crimean war. Does England meditate another Crimean war? And is she willing to sacrifice to some unknown and mysterious object the parliamentary liberties of France? I do not exaggerate in saying that the views expressed by the *Times* on French politics have given as much offence to the French people as the conduct of the *Times* during your war did to the American people. I may add that this interference will no more alter the course of events in France than it did in America.

It would be very imprudent to prophesy what this course of events will be. The inner divisions of the French people have never been more apparent. The country, as well as the House, is divided into two parts, of nearly equal strength. The Republicans are the least numerous, but they are the most ardent, and they constantly threaten the majority with civil war. The Monarchical party, which has the good fortune to be free from all communistic and socialistic elements, is for the present neutralized by the fatal antagonism between the principles of the Comte de Chambord and those of

the Orleans family. If the Comte de Chambord was generous enough to abdicate, his party, composed of the old French nobility, would at once rally round the Comte de Paris, and, as the views of the Orleans family are liberal, a great number of moderate Republicans would soon rally round him and accept a constitutional monarchy in preference to a Gambettist republic. For the present the various monarchical parties are obliged to rally on a purely conservative platform. M. Thiers has avowed that during the Commune he entered into engagements with the leaders of the advanced party in Bordeaux, Lyons, and other great towns. What the exact nature of these engagements was is not well known. But it is clear that they were at variance with the Pact of Bordeaux, which proclaimed a sort of political neutrality till the total liberation of the French territory. It is very freely said also that M. Thiers has made a distinct treaty with a member of the Commune of Paris, called M. Ranc, who was the chief of Gambetta's police at Tours and at Bordeaux. M. Ranc remained for two weeks in the Commune, and then was heard of no more. He is now one of the editors of Gambetta's paper, the *Republique Française*, and a member of the Municipal Council of Paris. Everybody knows why this dangerous demagogue, who signed the decree for the arrest of the hostages, has never been prosecuted. He says himself that he has a talisman. M. Thiers is fond of quoting the Cardinal de Retz, and during the Fronde, Retz signed many a secret treaty, sometimes with Mazarin, sometimes with the Spaniards.

There is something very extraordinary in the quiet assurance with which the leaders of the Radical party repeat that M. Thiers belongs to them. "Bring in your prisoner," said a captain to a soldier who was holding a prisoner. "Why, captain, I can't, he is holding me." Such is nearly now the situation of M. Thiers and of the Radical party. The Conservatives of the Chamber made a desperate effort to extricate M. Thiers from the hands of his new friends; but their effort was of no avail, and now the two parties are well in line in front of each other, and M. Thiers is on the same side as Gambetta. It must be well understood by those who wish to have a precise knowledge of the situation, that the Republican army in the Chambers contains only about one hundred Gambettists proper, and that the greatest force on that side is composed of what is called the Left Centre; that is, of nearly two hundred gentlemen, who are only accidentally Republican, who have followed the leadership of M. Thiers in the interest of public order and of the liberation of the territory. These gentlemen have, most of them, belonged in former times to the Constitutional party; they were resigned to a conservative republic, but they are as much afraid as the members of the Right of a republic which should be in the hands of Gambetta and of the Communists. They may some day play the part of the Saxons at the battle of Leipzig, and if the alliance between Gambetta and Thiers becomes too close, they may wheel round and rejoin their former friends and allies. On the Conservative side there is more compactness; but the Conservative army has no good leaders, no man capable of standing before M. Thiers as Mr. Disraeli stands before Mr. Gladstone. But since the message, the resolution, the *entrain* of the Conservative army has surprised everybody. The deputies have returned from their provinces, thoroughly convinced of the necessity of raising a barrier before the tide of radicalism. M. Thiers has tried in vain to frighten them into submission, he has made the greatest oratorical efforts in order to break their union; it seems as if all his power was now lost. The spell is broken; there is no longer any confidence in him on one side of the house, and three hundred and thirty-five members have been bold enough to say so.

The political crisis might, I believe, have been delayed, but now it is too late. We have before us a long session, which will be nothing better than civil war. This extraordinary tension is felt in all the circumstances of life. Society is at a stand-still. When the future of France hangs on a thread, nobody can find time for the quiet pastimes of polite intercourse. France is like a beautiful marble which is slowly eaten up by an acid. In the few salons which are open you will hear no more literary, historical, or philosophical discussions. "Sonata, what wilt thou of me?" said a desperate man who could go nowhere without hearing a sonata of Beethoven played on the piano. Many would willingly scream now, "Thiers, what wilt thou of me?" He has become the unavoidable, the everlasting, the irrepressible Thiers. Elegant ladies will discuss the results of the last divisions. In the theatres, during the *entr'acte*, people are seen nervously looking over the evening papers. The officers at their mess, the workmen in their dark taverns, the bankers at their desks, are all talking of the same things. The whole life of the country seems in suspense. Publishers have told me that they have never sold so few books, that they actually hesitate before publishing the most excellent works. The attention of the public is entirely drawn to the daily incidents of the political drama.

The French are much more passionate than they are supposed to be; they feel besides that France is now very much like Hercules at the opening

* It also advised General McClellan to seize the Government at Washington.—ED. NATION.

of the two diverging roads. They feel that if they engage themselves in the wrong direction they may bring endless misfortunes on their too unfortunate country. They have the sad consciousness that they show to the foreigner the spectacle of a house divided against itself, and they see no means of bringing these divisions to an end. If ever France, in her greatness, has committed excesses and crimes; if she has been too ignorant of other countries' misfortunes, too disdainful of her enemies, too intoxicated with the feeling of her own strength and grandeur, she is indeed too much punished now. Her destinies are in the hands of an old man of seventy-six, who has already helped to destroy many governments, and who may now destroy his own, and half the country has lost its confidence in this saviour of an hour. The great Communist army is secretly reforming its ranks, and before the monuments of Paris are rebuilt dreams of making new ruins. Parties as hostile to each other as if they belonged to different races are all ready to devour the ephemeral reign of M. Thiers, waiting, as the poet says,

"A qui dévorera ce règne d'un moment."

The Germans are increasing the fortifications of Belfort, and are only waiting for an opportunity to seize permanently this last key of our frontier. The man whom so many would like to seize the sceptre of Saint Louis, of Louis XIV., and of Louis XVIII., lives on a political Sinai, and contents himself with emitting oracular declarations. The future is as dark as the present; and France is drifting to an unknown destiny without a pilot, without a helm.

Correspondence.

ENGLISH AUTHORS AND AMERICAN REPRINTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me through your columns to take up a little slip in the new edition of my "Two Years in an English University," an omission to omit. I wish to do so because it involves a curious transient item of literary history, now generally forgotten.

On p. 500, it is stated that full ten per cent. of the novels republished here are credited to the wrong authors. This assertion may well surprise a reader of the present day; nevertheless in 1851 it was literally true. At that time a certain class of our re-publishers had a fashion of taking some tolerably well-known name (though not one of the very first names) and attaching to it any sort of rubbish, frequently reprints of books ten or fifteen years old. There was, I remember, a Mrs. Grey, who had somehow achieved considerable popularity in America (and I suppose some reputation previously in her own country). She was a great favorite in this way, and made to do duty on all occasions. The practice had become so prevalent that I mentioned it to Mr. Duyckinck, editor of the *Literary World* (the American critical weekly of those days), asking him to make some animadversion upon it, which I believe he did.

Circumstances attending the republication of the "Two Years" obliged me to revise it in great haste, at a time when I was pressed with other work. I intended and endeavored to strike out every assertion which had become an anachronism. But these statements and references being scattered here and there, some of them in odd holes and corners of the book, so to speak, they occasionally escaped my notice, as in this instance.

C. A. BRISTED.

WASHINGTON, D. C., Dec. 14, 1872.

SMITH'S LATIN DICTIONARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of your notice of the "White-Riddle Latin Dictionaries," the neglect of Dr. William Smith's work has long puzzled me. It would seem hardly possible that your reviewer too could be ignorant of its merits, and yet if he were familiar with it, how could he speak of the relation of *mascor* and *gigno* with each other and with *γίγνομαι*, of the kinship of *Suavis* and Sanskrit *Svādu*, and, by implication, of other kindred roots from cognate languages, as something quite new to a school dictionary? And it is said to be a novel feature, "not to be found in other books of reference," to give the French and Italian equivalents under each word. This Smith certainly does not do—as in a plain case like *conquerir* and *conquiro*, for instance—but he does give *abeille* and *pechia* under *apicula* (one of your citations) and many others, where the changes of a word have obscured its parentage. At all events, when the reviewer remarks that the reader of *Livy* (he might have added *Cæsar*), "can now have authority for 'Saltus, a mountain pass,'" he clearly could not have looked into Smith.

My only object is to call attention to a very useful book, and to its singu-

lar neglect in this country. I have used it for a dozen years or so, and for the rough work, at least, of an occasional dabbler, who pretends to no scholarship at all, have found it better than Andrews, and much more satisfactory than the older editions of Riddle. I don't venture to say that it is better than the new works of White and Riddle, with their advantage in point of time, for I have not seen them, and am not competent to judge if I had, but perhaps you will think it hardly fair to yourself, to Dr. Smith, or to American letters, to allow us to send this volume of the *Nation* to the binder's without some limitation of the statement, that of the last thirty years of activity in the study of comparative grammar and new interpretation, "the American student can find, in his books of reference, not the slightest trace."

PHILADELPHIA.

T. S.

[We had in mind only American dictionaries when we wrote. With the merits of Dr. Smith's work, which is in but too few American hands, we have long been acquainted.—ED. NATION.]

CHURCH AND STATE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The inordinate length of my letter published last week fully justified you in omitting a few of its paragraphs. But as the suppression of one of them may do me some injustice, permit me to mention that it affirmed that I wrote in no depreciation of the Christian Church in any of its branches, and expressed my profound sense of the good it had done and was destined to do.

That the influence of our organized ecclesiastical bodies is on the whole elevating and noble, is a proposition which commands my hearty assent. I also admit that, in view of the good they accomplish, they may make a claim—and a very strong claim—for state aid. Although I am personally inclined to the belief that it is for the true interest of religion in America to owe nothing to the state, I do not assert that opinion with undue confidence, and cheerfully bow to the wisdom of our legislators if they think otherwise. My protest is directed to the manifest injustice of permitting irresponsible corporations to *help themselves* to the people's money under general laws. I do not deny that it may be a good thing for the State of Massachusetts to present the Old South congregation with half a million of dollars. I ask, however, that it may be done openly by the representatives of the people, and that I may have the opportunity of presenting the claims of my church for a similar bounty.

If, then, in view of the services which churches undoubtedly render the state, we grant that it is expedient to tax the people in their aid, there remains this question: How shall we justly levy that tax and distribute its proceeds? I can see but one answer. Let our legislatures appropriate an annual sum for the assistance of ecclesiastical bodies. Let the representatives of different sects present their claims before some tribunal constituted to distribute the money as equity shall seem to demand.

J. P. QUINCY.

QUINCY, Mass., Dec. 13, 1872.

LOWLAND SCOTCH NAMES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to your note of the 7th Nov., page 298, on the erection of the Scott Statue in the Central Park, New York, you give *Johnson*, *Thompson*, and *Robinson*, as typical lowland Scotch names. To us, again, they appear distinctly English names—i. e., when so spelt. I take the "Edinburgh Directory," and the names of residents under these names, and the corresponding Scotch names, are as follows: *Johnson*, 5; *Johnston* and *Johnstone*, 160; *Thompson*, 8; *Thomson*, 235; *Robinson*, 4; *Robertson*, 254.—I am, etc.,

S.

EDINBURGH, Dec. 3, 1872.

Notes.

A WORK on the "Cetaceans and other Marine Animals of California," by Capt. C. M. Seammon, U. S. Revenue Marine, San Francisco, will be published by subscription at the Naturalists' Agency, Salem, Mass. The plates will be full and finely executed.

—We announce with sincere regret the death of Mr. George P. Putnam, the well-known publisher, which took place very suddenly on Friday last. His name is associated, both by friendship and by business relations, with the lives and literary fame of Irving, Cooper, Bryant, Duyckinck, Tuckerman,

Kennedy, the Clarkes, and others of the older generation of American writers, and of Hawthorne, Lowell, Curtis, Taylor, "Harry Franco," and others of the present. We do not know that it could be said that his most intimate and valued associations were with the former of these groups of writers rather than with the latter; but certainly he placed upon the men of the "former days," which were "better than these," a very high estimate, and one which differed a good deal from the later and less laudatory estimate which the rising generation placed upon it. However, be that as it may, he maintained with these writers, as with his brethren of the trade, an enviable reputation for kindly, liberal, and upright dealing and amiable manners, and perhaps no American publisher ever had fewer enemies or more numerous friends. For all these qualities he will be long and deservedly remembered, and also for his hearty efforts to bring about an international copyright law for the protection of foreign authors. Indeed, he was himself an author before he became a publisher, beginning at a very early age with editing the *Bookseller's Advertiser*, a monthly periodical, and afterwards "Chronology: An Introduction and Index to Universal History, Biography, and Useful Knowledge," on which was founded his "World's Progress" (1850), besides "American Facts" (1845), two European guide-books, and other statistical works. His connection with magazine literature in this country is too recent and familiar to our readers to need more than a mere mention here. Mr. Putnam was a native of Brunswick, Me., and was in his fifty-ninth year at the time of his death. His sons, we presume, will continue the business without interruption.

—The *Times* has recently printed one or two local articles, which must have had a great deal of interest for old inhabitants, and the perusal of which we recommend to such of our present citizens as Providence decreed should be born among the outside barbarians. It will tend to make them feel like sons of the soil, for one thing; and it may tend to make them better citizens. The latest of these articles appeared on Saturday last, and gave us some information about Murray Hill. Not so famous as Beacon Hill, Murray Hill is nevertheless known to most New Yorkers as the best quarter of the city; it is the apex and centre of that "architect's brown study," that expanse of tall houses with brownstone fronts which is the Earthly Paradise of the stock-broker and the heavy burden on the soul of the artist in architecture. In the very middle of it, at the corner of Thirty-seventh Street and Fifth Avenue, many of our readers have seen an odd old wooden house, perched on a little hill which rises directly and abruptly from the sidewalk, and which still makes some feeble efforts to remind the passer-by that it has been a garden. In front of it, in the yard, are numerous rustic seats; and a new conservatory, built out from the right side of the melancholy old cottage, extends to the street, and offers its shop door to the public, which may here buy its flowers. The house itself, as a signboard informs us, is occupied by a French milliner. Very queer is the aspect of the whole place, house and yard, amid the "palatial residences" of Murray Hill. Yet from the builder of this house, who, a hundred and fourteen years ago, was living in it in a style of much magnificence, the fashionable quarter takes its name.

—In 1758, Mr. Robert Murray, an American citizen of good Scotch descent, and a member of the Society of Friends, had his town-house in Pearl Street; but out in the country, on a hill looking towards Harlem and commanding a view of the East River and the Hudson, he had a fine country-seat and beautiful grounds. His pleasure gardens reached down to the southward as far as the Madison Square of our day—Madison being at that time about seven years old, and perhaps dreaming that he was one day to be distinguished, and perhaps not. Mr. Murray's kitchen-gardens, screened from view by a plantation of evergreens, were on the Fourth Avenue side, and it was from the southern side that an avenue fringed with tall trees wound through smooth lawns to the house. English elms, Lombardy poplars, Virginia tulip-trees and magnolias, were among the trees which grew where we now see the Belgian pavement and the long lines of five-story houses all alike. This Robert Murray, by the way, was inclined to be a Tory when the Revolution came. His ancestors had been Scotch Episcopalians, a loyal breed, and his sympathies were with the Government, although his wife and his two daughters—whose beauty was the theme of Major André's enthusiastic praises—sympathized with the rebels. It was, for instance, by an enormous fib of Mrs. Murray's that Gen. Israel Putnam, on September 15, 1776, was able to escape Sir William Howe. Putnam had been in command in this city, his headquarters being at No. 1 Broadway, but after the defeat of the American forces in the battle of Brooklyn Heights it became necessary for him to evacuate, and make for Westchester where Washington was encamped. He therefore ordered what stores could be packed up to be got together, and was soon marching rapidly for the Bloomingdale Road and Westchester. But, as Putnam had been informed, Sir William Howe had indeed crossed, and was marching by the Middle Road to capture the Americans. When he reached the spot where the hedges of the Murray

garden touched the Middle Road, he found at the gate Mrs. Murray, and with her the beautiful Miss Beulah and the more beautiful Miss Susan, and Mrs. Murray begged the General to alight and dine. Howe said that he could not; he must pursue Putnam and his rebels. "Ah, William, these art late," said Mrs. Murray; "my daughters and I saw them march up the Middle Road shortly after the dawning. They marched in haste like men that are afraid." To this inexact statement the young ladies gave a full and dutiful corroboration, and Friend William, who was never averse to a dinner nor to the society of ladies, alighted and dined, while Putnam's men with their hearts in their mouths got stealthily to McComb's Dam, and so went safe to the camp of Washington. Mr. Murray's son, Lindley, by the way, was the famous grammarian. As a young man he was very athletic and active, a great leaper and walker. He disdained the use of carriages and horses, and always walked to his place of business. One morning on his way down, when he came to Peck Slip, which was then exactly twenty-two feet wide, he attempted to leap across it, and did so, but fell as his feet struck the far side, and in some way so injured his spine that he was ever after an invalid. Taken to England for treatment, he was so much better there than here that it became his residence, and he there composed his grammar and became one of the household gods of the British schoolmaster, who, we may be sure, has seldom known that he was bowing down before a Yankee. We have just said that Lindley Murray disdained the use of carriages. That, however, was not the language to be used. Carriages were then very scarce, and in this part of the country were very unpopular as signs of aristocracy and effeminacy. Mr. Murray, having imported a coach for the greater convenience of his ailing son, was imitated by Dr. Cadwallader Colden, who, in 1761, became Lieutenant-Governor of the Province, and by two other gentlemen; but when the troubles broke out between the colonies and the old country, Governor Colden, who was a Tory, was burned in effigy at the Bowling Green, at the foot of Broadway, and his coach, which had been forcibly taken from his stables, was burned in reality.

—Mr. Dorman B. Eaton's plan of municipal reform has been given to the public through the press; it was to have been delivered as an address, but Mr. Eaton's ill-health rendered this impossible. The suggestions it contains are worth listening to, as coming from a man who has learnt what the evils of our present government are by practical experience of them—very nearly at the expense of his life. Calling attention at the outset to the fact that no real system of government has ever been attempted in New York, the charter having grown by successive heterogeneous partisan amendments into a shapeless mass of what might be called crude statute, Mr. Eaton intimates the opinion that "constructive reform" must begin with the abolition of all the other partisan "squares, parallelograms, and triangles"—pestiferous nests of pot-house politicians—and the recognition of the city as a representative unit. The chief political question of the day, however, Mr. Eaton thinks, is that of "better administrative methods." Instead of the chaos of laws at Albany relating to cities and villages, the proportion between these and the whole annual legislative product having gradually increased from one-eighth in 1840 to one-fourth in 1870 (in which year thirty-nine laws were passed for Brooklyn alone), we need a statesmanlike system in harmony with the social tendencies and political institutions of the country. Any change of the basis of suffrage Mr. Eaton regards as impracticable, if nothing else. As the first step towards reform, he would have a commission appointed to codify the laws relating to New York, with general powers of investigation and recommendation. He would then have it distinctly understood and agreed by the managers that for the future the city was to be governed on business, not partisan, principles. The vital question of official responsibility Mr. Eaton treats ably. He shows very clearly that the system of party responsibility has utterly failed, and that the only reforms introduced have been through commissions, or, in other words, through individual responsibility. "The desire of securing the good opinion of honest men, and the fear of exposure in the press, of punishment in the courts," are, as he says, the only feelings that produce a salutary sense of responsibility in a city official. Civil-service reform, general publicity of proceedings, appointment instead of election of administrative officers—all these reforms are advocated. The constructive part of his essay is less valuable than that which is occupied with criticism of the existing state of affairs. In fact, Mr. Eaton's criticism is so good as almost to prove the impossibility of any lasting reform without a much more complete revolution in system than he is willing to admit necessary.

—Mr. Wendell Phillips's lecture on the "Lost Arts," well known throughout the United States as perhaps the most famous product of the Lyceum period, was delivered the other evening at Steinway Hall, and reported for the first time in the *Tribune*. Of course, so much is lost in printing that it would be unfair to speak of its total effect. Every one who has heard Mr. Phillips knows how much he is able to make out of his materials; but the

materials themselves are interesting also. The motive of the lecture was, Mr. Phillips says, the reduction of the national conceit by a comparison of the condition of the science, art, mechanics, and so on of the present day with those of past generations; the comparison showing how little progress even we, the foremost of modern nations, have made, with all our gunpowder, steam, and electricity. The lecture is cleverly constructed and full of anecdote, but it seems doubtful whether it can ever have done much as "a medicine for what is the most objectionable feature of our national character." To tell your fellow-citizens that they are but pigmies, in the eyes of him who is familiar with the general history of the race, while at the same time you admit that they are the foremost of now-existing pigmies, may make them feel their common humanity, but will hardly tend to cultivate a spirit of humility or self-depreciation. Nowadays a lecturer who wished to force this disagreeable medicine down the throats of the American people, would institute comparisons, not between ourselves and the Medes and Persians, but between ourselves and our own contemporaries, showing wherein we fall behind other modern nations in the race of progress, how well our system of education compares with the Prussian, our civil service with English, our roads with those of France. Perhaps, however, it is more probable that Mr. Phillips lectured on the "Lost Arts" rather for the pleasure of lecturing than for any moral object. The lecture has, on the whole, a curiously remote, old-fashioned country-village effect, which is heightened every now and then by the introduction by name of the John Thompsons and Abijah Wings of the lecturer's acquaintance, who "had recently returned from foreign travel," or who "tell me that they saw in China" or "among the British aristocracy," such and such curious things. But we speak of it only as it appears in type.

—Our three-meals-eating readers may be interested to know that the Oneida community at Madison, in this State, have adopted the plan of eating but two meals *per diem*, and that they nevertheless do not become uncomfortably hungry, nor too low in flesh; but on the contrary that, during the month in which the self-denying ordinance has been in force, a gain has taken place in the aggregate weight of the family, which now is heavier than it was by 126 pounds avordupois;—unless, indeed, the family weighs itself by Troy weight, as being a particularly precious crew of ladies and gentlemen. "Greater leisure for study" these pundits also secure by cutting off some of their victuals, for less kitchen work is required. We observe, too, that "a strong clothing committee" is called for by the financial committee, which remarks that "this committee should investigate the needs of all the members of the community, and make up their estimates, to be handed in before the first of January." We should say that here is an occasion when the Community's pleasing custom of Free Criticism would come in to advantage, and we trust each sister will remember that the others should adorn themselves with calico and the like, and not with all-wool delaine—with modest apparel, as the Apostle Paul says—to the people over in the next pew—with shame-faceness and sobriety, not with broidered hair, or gold, or costly array. Very profitable some of the critical evenings might be made, we feel sure, if each of the ladies would give her real views as to the minimum in garments which the other ladies of the family could perfectly well get on with if they liked. We see, by the way, that the Oneida family's dear friend, W. Hepworth Dixon, having sued the *Pall-Mall Gazette* for libellously calling him a writer of "obscene books" and of "vamped up books of travel," has got the sum of one farthing damages. Other Americans than the Communists will heartily rejoice at the luck which has overtaken this literary scavenger. They will, at all events, if they recollect particularly his "New America," into which he raked these same Communists, the Mormons, and half a dozen other obscure varieties of such sectaries as are distinguished for low sexual morality, and invited Europeans to regard them as specimen Americans. He has at last got something like his deserts. There is always an end to such people, sooner or later. We may usually expect with good reason to live until we see our desire upon our enemies; all that is necessary is to select our enemies with care.

—The last number of the *Historische Zeitschrift* (1872, No. 4) gives especial praise to three recent historical works. Hausrath's History of the New Testament period ("Neutestamentliche Zeitgeschichte") is pronounced to be composed "in a form not merely enjoyable, but really admirable, satisfying the enlightened taste and most cultivated æsthetic demands of the time"; that it combines with this the results of the latest and best scholarship may of course be assumed. The second volume, just published, covers the time of the apostles. After reading Coulange's frantic and ludicrous onslaught upon German historiography in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, it is refreshing to take up a warmly commendatory notice, by W. Arndt, of Monod's "Etudes Critiques sur les Sources de l'Histoire Mérovingienne," the first part of which comprises Gregory of Tours and Marius of Avenches. "It is

the best work that we as yet possess upon the person and works of Gregory of Tours"—"even Loebell's 'Gregory of Tours and his Time' cannot be compared" with it. Sohm, the author of the latest work on the early German constitution, praises Hensler's "Ursprung der Deutschen Stadtverfassung," as distinguished by "eminent capacity for the intuitive comprehension and presentation of mediæval relations, as well as by judicial clearness and precision." A book dealing satisfactorily with this difficult subject will be acceptable to many students.

—Doctor Schliemann, who has for some time been digging on the site of ancient Troy, thinks that, on the 19th of July last, he struck the colossal Trojan wall described by Homer. It is built of cut stone, held together by clay, three and a half metres wide on the west, and four on the east side. While engaged in this work, he discovered thousands of pieces of *terra cotta* with the most varied religious symbols. Schliemann was having the spot where the temple of Apollo was built explored when he found a marble block magnificently worked representing Phæbus Apollo, and dating from the time of Lysimachus. In a letter written subsequent to the discovery, Schliemann announces the fact that the wall above mentioned belongs to a tower forty feet high, and built on a rock sixteen feet down. While digging about the temple, another immense wall was discovered towards the north.

—A congress of Italian publishers has lately been sitting at Venice. The result most interesting to foreigners was the warm approval given to the proposition of Signor Petoche in regard to the publication of a "Bibliography of all Works printed in Italy from the Invention of Printing to our own Time." Sig. Bertocci, who has been preparing a "Bibliography of Italian Publications during the XIXth Century," was invited by the congress to unite in the work. There are many careful monographs on the literature of particular cities, as Affo's "Parma," Argelati's "Milan," Fantuzzi's "Bologna," Mongitore's "Sicily," Tiraboschi's "Modena," and many others, and there is a general Italian bibliography by Mazzuchelli, which never went beyond the letter B, to say nothing of Haym's "Libri rari" and Melzi's "Opere anonime e pseudonime." But all these stop short of the present time, most of them belonging to the last century, all are incomplete even for the period they cover, and some of them might be much improved in the method of treating their materials. Certainly it is to be hoped that Sig. Petoche and Bertocci will not adopt the inconvenient folio form affected by so many of their predecessors. To compress their rich literature within a reasonable number of volumes, they will be obliged to study brevity—a rare quality in an Italian; but they may at least give references to the works in which disputed questions are treated at length. If they carry out their plans the English Watt, the French Quérard, the German Kayser, will be outdone. As for America, to mention Roorbach and Kelly is to blush. It appears from representations made to this congress by the society of journeymen printers of Venice, that they are paid just half as much as compositors are at Florence, not a hundred and fifty miles away. Whether this is a relic of Austrian dominion at Venice, and the difficulty of leaving that city, or is due to the well-known local affection and pride of Italians, or some peculiar inertness in Italian workmen, it is remarkable. An American compositor who could obtain double wages in a city half a day's ride distant and not much more expensive to live in, would go there at once.

—The first and second parts of Professor Salazar's work on the development of painting in the South of Italy, of which we have twice spoken in the *Nation*, have at length reached this country, having been imported by F. W. Christern, 77 University Place. The full title of the work, which promises, judging from these two parts, to be of unexpected value, is as follows: "Studi sui Monumenti della Italia Meridionale dal IVo. al XIIIo. Secolo, per Demetrio Salazar, Ispettore della Pinacoteca nel Museo Nazionale di Napoli. Napoli, 1872." In the Dedication to Fiorelli, the learned and efficient Director of the Museum, Salazar complains of the false notions relative to the renaissance of art in Italy, and of the lacunæ that exist in the museums in consequence of these false notions. Speaking further of the early Christian art, which he traces to the Catacombs, he says:

"At first it appears simple in its conceptions, dry in its forms, but profound and full of feeling in expression. It is not my purpose to hold the reader to a long demonstration how the arts lived through the first ages of Christianity, how the new belief transformed the classic paganism, and how painting, emerging from the Catacombs, mounted to more splendid light in the basilica and other public edifices after the first century. But art, in its transformation, leaned more and more to a psychological development, to the loss of plastic excellence. And, for ten centuries, painting slowly developed itself, following with constancy the reawakening movement which came from the South of Italy. From the first revival it declined, under the gilded ornamentation of the Byzantines, and in the eleventh century reappeared anew in its primitive form, but richer in composition. Of this grand movement of Christian art we shall present numerous and convincing monuments and not a few names of illustrious artists, known even to-day. It is

our intention, therefore, to demonstrate that in these southern provinces of Italy, from the fourth to the thirteenth century, the arts were abundantly cultivated (*cultivate abbastanza*), and that in these regions, in which the civilization (*stato*) and the language of Italy had their birth, the twin arts were also in flower according to the times."

These extracts will give at least a notion of the scope and aim of the work. It is got up in a sumptuous style, and the illustrations are executed in chromo-lithography with much skill and an evident desire to preserve the spirit of the original wall-paintings. The illustrations begin with the frescoes of St. Angelo, in Formio, remarkable, says Salazaro, for the vastness of their conception, and will be drawn not only from the regions immediately about Naples, but also from Apulia and the Abruzzi, from Calabria and Sicily. Each of the two parts thus far published contains two plates. Those in Part First are: I. La Orante (The Virgin in Prayer), a fresco of the fourth century, from the Catacombs of Naples. II. The Saviour (sixth century); St. Peter and St. Paul (fifth century). Those in Part Second are: I. A Youth between Sts. Peter and Paul and two other Saints (fourth century). II. The Virgin praying between two Saints and the Founder of the Church (seventh century), from the Cimiterio di Badia, near Majori (Riviera di Amalfi).

—The public debate last February in Rome on the question whether St. Peter had ever visited the city of the Popes, was much more satisfactory as evidence of a certain tolerance in the Papal See than as a solution of historic doubts. Neither of the parties engaged in it seemed able to go to the bottom of the subject, and as usual it has remained for a German to make a profound and thorough examination of the sources, and render a decision on which the lay mind, at least, may perhaps rest as final ("Die Quellen der römischen Petrusage, kritisch untersucht von Richard Adelbert Lipsius." Kiel, 1872). The sources of the Peter legend, according to Lipsius, fall under three heads, according as they consist of writings referable to one or other of the three tendencies of Christendom represented by the Ebionites, the Gnostics, and the Catholics; the two first embodying the antagonism between Jewish and heathen Christianity, and the last being the reconciling and unifying element which gradually assumed to be [and became] the Church one and indivisible. In the books ascribed to Clement of Rome we have the Ebionitic authority; in the "Acts of Peter and Paul," the Catholic; and in the "Passion of Peter and Paul," the Gnostic. A careful analysis of the first-named has convinced Lipsius that it is derived from a still older writing (*Grundschrift*) that must have been composed a long time before the middle of the second century. This was in substance an account of the contest between St. Peter and Simon Magus, between the true and the false apostleship; and the Clementine version had only to identify the sorcerer with the heathen apostle Paul to set Simon Magus over against Simon Peter. The scene of their encounters was laid first in Syria, where the historic differences between Peter and Paul were duly improved upon as a basis; and afterwards in Rome, whither Peter, not having fully overcome his adversary, was obliged to follow him and incurred martyrdom. But this portion of the story the Clementine version rather hints at as something known to the writer, than attempts to develop. In the Catholic version, which belongs in the fifth or sixth century, we have the two apostles acting as co-workers, but the influence of the *Grundschrift* is visible in the subordination of Paul. In Rome the Jews entreat him to defend their religion against Peter; but he busies himself in stilling the quarrels between heathen and Jewish Christians. Simon Magus appears upon the scene under the patronage of Nero, and challenges the apostles to a trial of supernatural powers; and having undertaken to fly from a high tower, Paul with tears in his eyes witnesses his success, and urges Peter to make haste with his counter-charm. This Peter does, tumbling the magician to the ground; but the martyrdom of both the apostles follows inevitably. (The incident of Simon's flying, by the way, is traceable to the record, found in pagan writings, of a real occurrence of the sort in the reign of Nero—the amphitheatre in the Campus Martius being the scene of the failure.) In a great many minor features the two versions thus far related betray a common origin. The Gnostic version is in two parts—the second describing the sufferings of Paul, and apparently being a pure invention (*freie Dichtung*), not connected as yet with any anterior writing. The first part agrees essentially with the Catholic version as to the sufferings and death of Peter, except that it entirely separates him from Paul, and on this account cannot be supposed to have been taken from the Catholic. In conclusion, the Romish Peter-Paul legend appears to have been originally a Peter-Simon legend, and a mere continuation of that of which Syria was the theatre. It can, therefore, lay no claim to an historic character, but must be regarded as a poetic manifestation of the Ebionitic, Jewish-Christian hostility to Paul, and can neither be used as a proof of his nor of Peter's stay in Rome. The argument for the latter drawn from the connection which it has in Catholic tradition with Paul's sojourn and death in the same

city, thus falls to the ground, as soon as the real nature of the connection is revealed.

TUCKERMAN'S GREEKS OF TO-DAY.*

BOOKS of travel are generally of ephemeral value, because the progress of a few years makes their statements inadequate or inaccurate. Especially is this true in regard to such a country as Greece, where during the last forty years the changes have been almost as great and as rapid as in the United States. In criticising such books, therefore, one may fairly praise the latest, although in absolute merit it may be inferior to some of its predecessors. In this sense, and yet not perhaps in this sense only, this book of Mr. Tuckerman's is the best English account of Modern Greece. Compared with Baird's volume, published in 1856, it is greatly inferior in fulness and accuracy. Compared with Felton's "Letters from Europe," written in 1853, a large part of which is occupied with Greece, it lacks variety and vividness. But we know of no book which so combines freshness and fulness of information. The author had many advantages from his official position, and seems to have used them well. He betrays now and then an amusing consciousness of his dignity, as when he almost complains that Athens "is surfeited with foreign ministers, and they come and go as noiselessly as the seasons" (p. 21), or when he mentions "the plain dress-coat of the American Minister at public ceremonies, contrasting with the glitter and gold of the rest of the diplomatic corps," as eliciting "the favorable comment of the press" (p. 336). Unfortunately, Mr. Tuckerman does not seem to have had the advantage of previous practice in literary work to chasten his taste and form his style. He indulges himself in metaphors and occasionally in fine writing, to the injury of his book. One example may suffice of a metaphor needlessly used and cruelly protracted. Speaking of the desire of Greece in 1827 for more territory than the Great Powers were willing to give her, he says (p. 126): "Dissatisfied with the spoonful of political broth, the Oliver Twist of nations had the unblushing temerity to 'ask for more.' The plump beadles stood aghast; then made a show of earnest consultation, which resulted in stamping the little upstart with the badge of deep-dyed ingratitude, and refused a second spoonful." The author's attempts at sprightliness and fine writing may be accounted for by the supposed necessity of adapting his style to the magazine readers for whom some of these chapters, we are not told which, were originally prepared. But only want of skill in the use of language can explain such expressions as the following: in Greek architecture "vanity was a subjective principle to that of religious faith" (p. 72); "the exceptional condition which Greece holds toward the rest of Europe" (p. 103); "the Greek journals reproduced [my paper] with fulsome encomiums, but I was not so blind as not to perceive that the *touchstone* of their gratification lay in the passages," etc. (p. 246); "here, or supposed to be here, which is much the same thing, the warrior-king Ulysses found safety from shipwreck, and held the famous interview with Nausicaë [*sic*]—she who has been called," etc. (p. 295); Greece "has long been recognized as the football ground of Europe" (p. 330), where we suppose he means the football.

Other errors or inaccuracies, which cannot all be due to the alleged (p. 365) haste of preparation, appear here and there. The spelling of Greek words is a stumbling-block to our author, so that we find Rangabéz, Botzaris (both end alike in Greek), Kolocotroni and Colocotronis for Kolokotronis, Megira for Megara, Pandrosa for Pandrosos, Eretheum for Erechtheum, Praxitiles for Praxiteles, metropes always for metopes, Jupiter Olympius and Jupiter Olympus, kleft and klept, Sina and Sinna. The hill of the museum is not "crowned with an unsightly observatory" (p. 36). The hill of Kolonus is not "the hill of columns" (p. 78). Of "the most ancient naval battle recorded in history" (p. 297), nothing is known but the mere statement of the fact in Thucydides, and when Mr. Tuckerman gives the scene of it and the number of ships engaged, it must be from private information of his own, or from a confused recollection of one which Thucydides describes as fought in 435, not in 657, B.C. We should be glad to know also where he ascertained that the people of Corfu (Korkyra) are descended from "Spartan ancestors" (p. 321), for Thucydides, as well as Strabo, had the idea that the island was settled from Corinth. The modern Greek may be glad to prove that the vitality of his mind is due to "hereditary influences going back to the Illyrian or even to the Pelasgian tribes" (p. 330), but the ancient Greek would have thought that almost a Darwinian development. It may be true that "to be out-manœuvred in a bargain, especially by one of his own countrymen, is a source of the deepest mortification" to the Greek, but when Mr. Tuckerman adds, "hence the proverb, 'When Greek meets Greek, then comes the tug of war'" (p. 341), we fear his love of metaphor makes him do injustice to old Nathaniel Lee, who did not mean "bargain-

* "The Greeks of To-day. By Charles K. Tuckerman, late Minister Resident of the United States at Athens." New York: G. P. Putnam & Sons. 1872.

ing" when he said "war." And we wonder whether it is his memory or his knowledge of Latin that is at fault when he regards the rejection by the Eastern Church of the famous *filioque* clause to mean a rejection of the "doctrine of the procession of the Holy Ghost from Father to Son" (p. 197). These may appear trifling matters, but in judging the quality of a man's work, especially when there was no pressing necessity of its being done and done at once, and when, too, it is a work of information from a source presumably authoritative, such matters (and many more may be cited) are valid tests of thoroughness and accuracy.

We turn now to the general statements and arguments of the book. Some of these are new and of real value. Such is the account of the present King and Queen, which, though brief and evidently somewhat rose-colored, yet shows clearly the gain to the Greeks in having exchanged Otho for George. Another is the paper on brigandage, and the sketch of the "Massacre near Marathon" in 1870. No other writer, we think, has stated so fairly and fully the hold which the brigands have on all classes of the people, and the consequent difficulty of suppressing them. The account of the way in which young men who wish to live by their heads rather than by their hands drift into politics as a profession, is also new and interesting. The chapter on the modern city (we prefer to say nothing of that on the "Parthenon and other Ruins"), though trivial and shallow in many points, gives a good picture of what a traveller staying a week or two might observe or learn in conversation, making a fairly good magazine sketch to impart information or revive pleasant memories. The discussion of the "Great Idea," the dream of a Greek Empire with Constantinople for its capital, seems just in its reasoning and right in its conclusion.

Mr. Tuckerman enters upon his account of the Greek character with the expressed intention "to correct existing prejudices and widespread misconceptions." For the accomplishment of such a purpose, he ought to have provided himself with new facts or with well-supported explanations of old facts. How, then, does he deal with the matter of honesty among the Greeks, as to which there is certainly an "existing prejudice" that it would hardly outweigh the snakes in Ireland? He admits that "the most distinctive feature in their intellectual system is finessé," but argues that such "subtlety," "polish of manner and politeness of speech," because natural to the Greek and not implying "premeditated deception," ought not to be "mistaken by the foreigner for dishonesty." "Modern Greeks embellish facts as their ancestors embellished their architecture" (p. 333)! It looks as if he had caught the infection of their "subtlety" by his residence among them. After speaking of other qualities, he comes back to another part of this topic, "the almost universal charge that the Greeks are a set of thieves and swindlers" (p. 342). This extravagant statement is fairly met by pointing out that it rests in large measure upon the hasty assumptions of travellers, who ascribe to Greeks all the sins of the mixed population of the Levantine ports, somewhat as in other lands the blame of every pedlar's cheating is laid by many people on the Jew. But when the author goes on to allege that "the commercial and working classes of the cities of free Greece are as respectable and honest as the same classes in other European cities" (p. 343), we cannot go along with him. He tells some good stories about the character of servants in Greece, but when he argues their honesty from the facts that a Russian lady in Athens could trust her Greek servants, while an American lady in Saxony or a Swiss official could not trust their German or Swiss ones, we cannot help thinking that the induction is too narrow, and that each story might easily be balanced by one to the opposite effect. Finally, he asks why, if the Greeks are honest, they have so bad a reputation; and, incredible as it may appear, his answer is that it is because their "political aspirations are not in keeping with the policy of Western Europe" (p. 351), and so the people and press of Europe, particularly of England, have tacitly agreed to denounce them as dishonest. We should say that in this discussion our author almost entirely avoids the points upon which it ought really to turn. We regard the Greeks as deserving to a lamentable extent their reputation in this regard, because we see that they do not trust one another, nor regard falsehood as a serious evil and sin; because they consider the financial statements of their Government as hardly worthy of confidence; because they disregard truth in dealing with children, and fail to teach them to observe it themselves; because they value a triumph of wit or cunning too much to regard the deception involved in it; because in their ideas of themselves and their nation they let their dreams and wishes blind them to the facts, content themselves with an appearance and an impression, and are unwilling to learn to seek out and face the truth because it is the truth.

The brief article on the Greek Church is in the main good, but it takes no notice of one grand defect of that Church—its failure to teach and enforce morality. Neither by doctrinal system, nor by practical precepts, nor by the example of the clergy, does it accomplish what it ought in this direction. All Greeks are by baptism members of it, as in Catholic countries, and re-

main so, be they brigands or bishops, so long as they observe the required rites. The lack of honesty in the people testifies to the neglect of morality on the part of the Church, and the arguments by which Mr. Tuckerman tells us the Greeks resist reform in the Church are evidence of their indifference to truth when compared with something that is old, settled, and, above all, Greek. The one serious blemish in this book, in our view, is the attack upon the American missionaries in Athens. The charges insinuated are mostly mistaken, and the opinions expressed, we think, out of place in such a book. Dr. King is dead, and what faults he had might surely, for the purpose of this book, be buried with him. It might be added that Mr. G. P. Marsh, then our Minister at Constantinople, and Professor Felton of Harvard College, neither of them men likely to be carried away by zeal for the missionary cause, found no fault with Dr. King's course, and that no missionary has since that time been troubled by the Government. When Mr. Tuckerman rakes up from the past and puts before the public in permanent form old forgotten caricatures, born of a fanaticism quite equal to that of the missionaries, and goes out of his way to charge the present missionaries with coloring their reports to the home society with "cant and embellishments," even printing a supposed report with an "unvarnished" edition of it on the opposite page, he offends against good taste, courtesy, and justice.

TREADWELL'S MANUAL OF POTTERY.*

THE publication of this manual is one of the many signs of a growing interest in art on this side of the Atlantic, which marks the present time. Mr. Treadwell may be congratulated on having recognized a want, and on having supplied it in so satisfactory a manner. Those who would collect understandingly will find his "vade mecum" a most useful guide, as it is the result of intelligent observation, fortified by the study of some of the best authorities upon the subject of which it treats.

We must confess that we do not understand why Mr. Treadwell speaks in his preface of ancient pottery as "not a part absolute of ceramic art." The potteries of Corinth, and Athens, and of the Greek Islands, as well as those of Nola, Chiusi, and Ruvo, not to speak of those of Thebes and Memphis, or of Tyre and Sidon, surely belong as absolutely to ceramic art as the majolicas of Urbino, Castel Durante, Ferrara, and Modena, or the porcelains of Sèvres, Dresden, and Capo di Monte. A word of explanation would not have been amiss, as the Greek derivative "*κεραμεία*" is applicable to all varieties of pottery.

Faïence, as Arnoux defines it, is "any clay which, after having passed through the fire, preserves a certain amount of porosity, and which is then covered with a glaze." The different kinds of faïence are produced by the use of common or of fire-clay; the admixture of sand with the clay, as in Persian ware; the use of a transparent or of a colored glaze; of an opaque or translucent enamel; and also by the combination of all these processes upon one and the same piece. Porcelain, as Mr. Treadwell tells us, differs from pottery "in being made of a fusible material which is vitrified and translucent." Some tests by which porcelain may be recognized are the homogeneity of its outer and inner coating, its hardness, which approaches to that of flint; its resistance to the action of boiling water and fire, and even to that of any acid but the fluorhydric. At page 10 of his manual the author proposes "fracture" as an infallible test whether an object be of pottery or porcelain. This test, being of somewhat dangerous application, we would suggest, as of a more innocent character, that of relative weight, and that of the difference of sound produced by the contact of two pieces of Satsuma or Nankin, say a cup and saucer. If of faïence the sound is soft and muffled; if of porcelain it is sharp and clear. This is explained by the difference of material.

In entering upon the subject of Oriental porcelain the author speaks of its introduction into Europe by the Portuguese in the beginning of the sixteenth century. The statement, though often made, we believe to be incorrect. The inventories of Italian princes make mention of porcelain objects at the end of the fifteenth. In the year 1497 Lorenzo de' Medici received several valuable porcelain vases from the Sultan of Egypt. The French King Charles VII., whose reign ended in 1422, possessed some pieces of porcelain. These facts are given in a late work by the Marchese Campori of Modena, who furnishes some valuable information, based upon documentary evidence, about the place and date of the first fabrication of porcelain in Europe. He cites a letter written in 1567, by Bernardo Carnigiani, the Florentine Ambassador at the Court of Ferrara, in which Camillo da Urbino, then in the service of Duke Alfonso II., is spoken of as the rediscoverer of the art of making porcelain. A letter written nine years later (1576) from Florence, by the Venetian Ambassador,

* "A Manual of Pottery and Porcelain for American Collectors. By John H. Treadwell." New York: G. P. Putnam & Sons. 1872.

claims the same honor for the Duke Francesco de' Medici. These almost simultaneous discoveries in Italy were made more than a century before Böttcher's day, but as the secret was lost, the credit of its recovery, and that of having made its processes common, may fairly be given to the Saxony of the sixteenth century.

In reviewing the history of pottery, Mr. Treadwell takes up each country in turn, beginning with Egypt. He quotes Pliny's statement that Corcebus of Athens and Hyperbius of Corinth invented the potter's wheel, and says that its incorrectness is proved by the mention of that object in the Bible at a much earlier period. Still more positive evidence is, however, furnished us by the wall-paintings in the tombs of Thebes and Beni Hassan, which, though executed long before the foundation of Athens, represent all the different processes of vase-making, such as turning, baking, and polishing. We know nothing of the origin of the art in Egypt, nor can any proof of an early intercourse between Egypt and China be brought forward, since "the wonderful little bottles with Chinese inscriptions," cited by Mr. Treadwell, at page 112, as evidences of the manufacture of porcelain in the East "at a remote period," are now acknowledged to be modern. Maryatt, in the second edition of his well-known work, p. 251, tells us that the writing characters upon some of these bottles were only introduced into China B.C. 43-33, and that the verses upon one of them in the museum at Sevres are taken from a Chinese author of the 8th century of our era. In a note (8) he says: "We believe that Sir G. Wilkinson is quite prepared to abandon all idea of the antiquity of these bottles," which are supposed to have been fraudulently placed in the tombs by Arab hands.

From Egypt the potter's art was probably introduced into Greece by the Phœnicians. Want of space prevents us from saying something about the earliest pottery found in the Greek islands, upon which subject the curious will find much valuable information in A. Conze's pamphlet, "*Zur Geschichte der Anfänge Griechischer Kunst*" (Wien, 1870).

At page 27, Mr. Treadwell, before stating the now universally accepted view that the vases found in Etruscan tombs are of Greek manufacture, says that Winckelmann's distinction of all Etruscan work as Campanian is almost frivolous, because Campania formed part of Etruria. We would remind him, however, that Campania "was peopled," to quote Dr. Mommsen, "by all sorts of Hellenic races, often amalgamated so as no longer to be distinguishable." The discovery of 6,000 vases since Winckelmann's day in the necropolis of Vulci, where there is no tradition of a Greek population, all decorated with Greek subjects and inscriptions, proved either that they were brought from Greece to Italy, which is improbable, or that they were made in local workshops under Greek direction, as is now generally believed. If we disagree with Mr. Treadwell on this point, so also we disagree with him about certain points connected with the early history of Italian majolica. Passeri, whom he quotes, says that he has seen glazed pottery upon a tomb of the year 1100. If this be so, the glaze used was transparent like a varnish. The proper starting-point for the manufacture of majolica is about the year 1300, when the opaque glaze was introduced, whose processes were perfected in the fifteenth century at the manufactories established by the Estes of Ferrara, the Sforzas of Pesaro, the Gonzagas of Modena, and the Della Roveres of Urbino. In point of precedence, we now know through the documents published by the Marchese Campori that Ferrara comes before Pesaro. Manufactories were established there about 1450, but at Ferrara we have the names of workmen who were employed by the Marchese Lionello d'Este in 1436 and 1443. Before Luca della Robbia's invention, "mezza majolica" only was made. This differs from fine majolica in that its glaze is plumbiferous, while the white opaque enamel of Robbia ware is stanniferous, of extreme brilliancy and hardness, and not liable to crack. The question as to whether Raphael ware is so-called because Raphael made designs for it, our author frankly confesses himself unprepared to consider. It would be rash to decide it in the negative, but we may state the opinions of the best authorities that the name was given because the designs of the great painter, made for other purposes, were copied in its decorations, or that the name is derived not from Raphael, but from Raffaellino del Colle, a painter who worked for Guidobaldo della Rovere. We notice that at page 85 Mr. Treadwell, in speaking of a specimen of Beauvais ware belonging to the National Library at Paris, expresses a fear lest it may have been destroyed during the Communist conflagration. This fear is, we think, groundless, for, thanks to the courage and devotion of the persons who had the care of the building and its precious contents, it and they escaped unharmed.

In conclusion, we would speak of Mr. Treadwell's manual as a highly creditable and most useful addition to American art literature. In wishing for it a wide circulation, we indirectly wish that American collectors of pottery and porcelain may multiply. It will be a welcome assistant to those who have already begun to indulge in so attractive a mode of spending time and money, and to all beginners it will be an indispensable guide.

Pertes Eprouvées par les Bibliothèques Publiques de Paris pendant le siège par les Prussiens en 1870 et pendant la domination de la Commune révolutionnaire en 1871. Rapport à M. le Ministre de l'Instruction Publique par M. Baudrillart, Inspecteur-Général des Bibliothèques. Paris. (New York: F. W. Christern. 1872.)—This official report reveals the extent of the losses which the libraries of the city of Paris sustained during the late German-French war; or rather, to adopt the terms of the report, "during the siege by the Prussians in 1870 and the domination of the revolutionary Commune in 1871." The report opens with a short statement of the injuries sustained by libraries outside of Paris; refers to the total loss of the important collections of Metz, Colmar, and Schélestadt, which, with the conquered provinces, passed into Prussian hands; and mentions the destruction, by bombardment, of the Palace of St. Cloud, with its magnificent library, especially rich in great illustrated works and magnificent bindings. In the other cities with libraries occupied by the enemy there have been no losses, except in the case of the library of the Military School of St. Cyr, partially destroyed by the Prussians.

From Prussian bombardment and occupation the great collections of the capital suffered little or nothing. But at the hands of the Communists the losses are immense, incalculable. As a question of mere money value, they must be counted in millions; as an intellectual loss, no figures can adequately represent it. Take, for instance, the case of the library of the Hôtel de Ville—one hundred and twenty thousand volumes—of which a large proportion treated of the history of Paris, and among which was the famous *Missal* of Juvenal des Ursins, illustrated with exquisite miniatures of the fifteenth century—a total loss. Total losses, also, the valuable special libraries of the Council of State, with its minutes of official sittings for long years past; of the Court of Accounts; of the Court of Appeals, with its fifty thousand volumes of jurisprudence; of the Legion of Honor; of the Society of Advocates; of the Ministry of Finance; and, finally, of the library of the Prefecture of Police, rich in manuscripts on the Revolution, and a collection, unique, of journals and newspapers, future material for the political history of our period. Of the national libraries in Paris, only one is reported as having received serious damage—a damage amounting to utter destruction—viz., the library of the Louvre, which has totally perished. The reporter appears to be almost at a loss for language to describe the wealth, taste, erudition, and beauty of this collection, the jewel of the libraries of France, "*un joyau qui brillait d'un éclat particulier, inappréciable*," which included valuable manuscripts, the most admirable specimens of rare books, proof engravings, illustrations of painting and engraving in large numbers, a complete museum of all that is perfect in the art of binding. All this has disappeared without leaving a trace, not even of mention in a catalogue, for all its catalogues have also perished, and many of them were masterpieces and models of patience and industry. They of themselves filled sixty volumes in folio, the names of authors alone occupying twenty-seven. The catalogue of subjects connected with the Revolution was of itself a literary treasure. It is now bitterly regretted that these catalogues were not printed, and the reporter takes occasion to recommend that an order be issued for the publication of the catalogues of all the public libraries of France, and recapitulates the many advantages to all concerned of the printed over the manuscript catalogue.

The list of losses of special and rare MSS. and literary curiosities is very large. First and most to be regretted is the Bull, written on papyrus, of Pope Agapetus, dated 951. A fac-simile of the document exists at Narbonne, and a copy of it is published in the *Papyri Diplomatici* of Marini. Then follow—we select only a few of the most striking—a beautiful Persian MS. of the Shah Hamet, with vignettes; a *Biblia Sacra* MS., in quarto, of the thirteenth century, on parchment, binding of black morocco by Simier, on the last leaf of which was read: "*Ista Biblia fuit gloriosissimi sancti Ludovici, quondam regis Francorum*"; a large collection of autograph letters of kings, princes, ambassadors, generals, etc.; the original account of expenses kept by the jailers of the Temple who had charge of "Louis Capet and family"; the MS. "*Reflections on the Mercy of God*," by Louise de la Vallière, with marginal notes by the hand of Bossuet.

One of the special glories of the Louvre library was its collection of Elzevirs, acquired by gift from M. Charles Motteley. This collection was the fruit of more than forty years of labor and travel, vast expenditure of money, and a thorough knowledge of the subject which amounted to a special science. It exceeded in value even the celebrated collection of Elzevirs in the library at the Hague. The Motteley collection was also rich in MSS.: the Bible of the Dukes of Guise, parchment MS. of the fifteenth century, with exquisite miniatures on every page; four large folios, "*The Campaigns of Louis XIV.*," with pictures by Vandermeulen and ornaments by Damoiselet; a large number of Greek and Latin MSS., nearly all from the library of the Oratory, and all anterior to the fifteenth century; a Cicero and a Horace of

the twelfth and a Virgil of the thirteenth, a Lucretius and an Ovid of the fourteenth, and the autograph MS. of the works of St. Agobard, of the ninth century.

The Louvre library was entered late in the night of the 23d-24th of May by incendiary Communists in the uniform of the National Guard, set on fire with the aid of petroleum, and by midday of the 24th its total destruction was accomplished.

Songs from the Dramatists. By Abby Sage Richardson. With Designs by J. La Farge. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1872.)—Perhaps the most entirely satisfactory of the season's gift-books is that made by Mrs. A. S. Richardson, or rather by Mrs. Richardson and Mr. John La Farge, who furnishes the volume with its pictures. It will readily be seen that the book is one which could not well avoid having a great charm. Our dramatic literature, rich as it is in all descriptions of writing, yet has for a principal merit the exquisiteness of the lyrical poetry scattered purposely up and down its plays; and the compiler would indeed have a curiously bad taste who should be able to put together a volume so large as this one and not make a very delightful and otherwise valuable book. Mrs. Richardson, who appears to have a great liking for her subject—a fondness for the songs, and a lifelong enjoyment of them, which argues the possession of much of the fitness required for the task—has gathered together some hundred or so of the pieces which we all

know, and Mr. La Farge has exercised his own poetic power in aid of her purpose. His theory of illustrating a book appears to be much like the theory of those instructors in elocution who used to inculcate it upon the pupil that his gesticulation should follow, not the words to be spoken, but should rather attempt to express his feeling and thought in another way. In like manner, to attempt expressing by picture just what our author has already expressed fully in her words, seems to a certain school of designers to be a mistake. If we understand the theory, it calls for designs which are no more than suggested by the words to be illustrated; it allows of a variation of the theme; it allows to the artist a look at his subject from other points of view; it is, in short, symbolical to a great extent, and not literal. Perhaps we do not state the thing correctly. However that may be, Mr. La Farge's imaginative pencil has worked very gracefully in some of these pictures, and we only wish the publishers had been more sumptuous, and allowed us three or four times as many. But, as it stands, we recommend the volume to the attention of all readers—to those who are good readers at other times, as well as bookbuyers at holidaytime, and readers of gift-books. Well adapted as it is for this time of the making of presents, it nevertheless has about it nothing of an ephemeral quality. The sweetest poetry of the best poets, illustrated by the always interesting and often beautiful work of one of the most refined and thoroughly cultivated of artists, makes a book that certainly is not for a day.

We will send *THE WEEK* for one Year,

With our new edition of

TAINÉ'S ENGLISH LITERATURE.

2 vols. Retail price \$7 50; both for \$7 75. The same to Teachers or Clergymen for \$6 75.

With

DANA'S CORALS AND CORAL ISLANDS.

Retail price \$6; both for \$7. The same to Teachers or Clergymen, \$6.

With

ANDREWS'S LATIN LEXICON.

Retail price \$7 50; both for \$3 53. The same to Teachers or Clergymen, \$7 50.

With

LIDDELL AND SCOTT'S GREEK LEXICON.

Retail Price \$6; both for \$7 75. The same to Teachers or Clergymen, \$6 75.

Remittances by P. O. order, draft, or registered letter, should in all cases accompany the subscription.

For free specimen copy of *The Week* address

HOLT & WILLIAMS, Publishers,
25 Bond Street, New York.

THE LITTLE CORPORAL.

AN ILLUSTRATED MAGAZINE FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.

THE LITTLE CORPORAL is now in its eighth year of publication, and has from its beginning been distinguished for the purity and originality of its literary contents, and the beauty and excellence of its pictorial illustrations. The serial stories for next year will be a continuation of "Uncle Dick's Legacy," by Emily Huntington Miller; "Hidden Treasures," by Mary A. Dennison; and a new story by Helen C. Weeks; besides a variety of shorter stories, Poetry, Articles on Scientific Topics, Natural History, Letters of Travel, Home Amusements, etc. All new subscribers for next year will receive the remaining numbers of this year FREE. Two beautiful Chromos—"Mother's Morning Glory," and "Little Runaway," given to every subscriber, old or new. Chromos sent promptly.

Terms, \$1 50 a year, including the Chromos, unmounted, sent post-paid for 10 cents extra; mounted, sized, and varnished, ready for framing, 25 cents extra; in clubs of five or more, 15 cents extra. Specimen numbers, with Premium List, free. Address

JOHN E. MILLER,
Pub. Little Corporal, Chicago, Ill.

HENRY K. VAN SICLEN, BIBLIPOLE,

183 NASSAU STREET.

American or Foreign Publications sent by mail, post-paid, at Catalogue prices.

The handsomest, and one of the best and most entertaining of the monthlies.

LIPPINCOTT'S MAGAZINE

AN ILLUSTRATED MONTHLY OF
POPULAR LITERATURE AND SCIENCE.

FOR 1873.

The New Volume, commencing with the January issue, will be replete with

THE MOST ATTRACTIVE FEATURES.

It is the intention of the conductors of the Magazine to render it a model of literary and mechanical excellence, and with this view no advantage will be neglected which either talent or capital can command to render each issue an agreeable and instructive compendium of

POPULAR READING.

The contributions now on hand, or specially engaged, embrace an unusually attractive list of Tales, Short Stories, Narratives, Descriptive Sketches, Papers on Science and Art, Poems, Popular Essays, Literary Criticisms, etc., by talented and well-known writers; together with a variety of able and interesting articles on the important questions of the day. In addition to the shorter articles, the following

ATTRACTIVE SERIAL WORKS

will appear in LIPPINCOTT'S MAGAZINE during the year.

I.

A Charming New Novel,

"THE PRINCESS OF THULE,"

A Story of London Life and Society.

BY WILLIAM BLACK,

Author of "A Daughter of Heth," "In Silk Attire," etc.

II.

A Powerful New Story,

"MALCOLM,"

BY GEORGE MACDONALD LL.D.,

Author of "Alec Forbes," "Robert Falconer," etc.

These productions are confidently believed to be masterpieces of their authors, abounding in incident and humor, in striking characters and dramatic situations.

A large amount of space will be devoted to OUR MONTHLY GOSSIP, which will be enriched with short and lively articles on persons of note, incidents of the day, and other novel or amusing topics.

A large proportion of the articles, especially those descriptive of travel, will be

PROFUSELY ILLUSTRATED.

The pictorial embellishments of the Magazine will constitute one of its most attractive features.

LIPPINCOTT'S MAGAZINE

Is for sale by all Periodical Dealers. TERMS: Yearly Subscription, \$4; single number, 35 cts. Liberal Clubbing rates. Specimen Number with Premium List, mailed on receipt of 20 cts.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO., PUBLISHERS,
715 and 717 Market Street, Philadelphia.

A CARD.

EDITOR OF THE NATION:

You are aware that we are introducing to the Trade, etc., this most desirable and greatly needed improvement in Cooking, and having found it to be, without doubt, most valuable, indeed, almost indispensable to every Family, Hospital, Charitable Institutions, etc., etc., we feel it our duty to bring it to the attention of all your readers; and that they may rely upon our statement as to the great merits we claim for it, we append the accompanying testimonials, and take this opportunity to express our thanks for the kindness and willingness with which they were given.

Respectfully,

NORTON & CO., 240 Broadway.

Messrs. NORTON & CO., 240 Broadway, New York: GENTLEMEN: For the information of the Public, and as a duty to Humanity, we, the undersigned, are willing to say that we have purchased of you the "WARREN PATENT COOKER," and have used it in our homes, and find that it performs all our claim for it, and take pleasure in recommending an invention so valuable to every household.

Erastus Brooks, Evening Express.

Samuel Sinclair, N. Y. Tribune.

John H. Dey, Evangelist.

D. M. Cole, Moore's Rural New Yorker.

L. F. Dinmore, American Car Builder.

E. A. Hayt, Christian Intelligencer.

A. G. Constable, Harper's Weekly.

Allen Turner, Chren'l Journal.

George Thurber, American Agriculturist.

Mrs. Irwin McDowell, No. 10 West 9th Street.

Mrs. E. Louis Lowe, No. 499 Clermont Avenue, Brooklyn.

Mrs. J. Hale, No. 112 West 34th Street.

Mrs. N. A. Stone, No. 29 West 29th Street, Supt. of Home of Friendless.

Wm. A. Hammond, M.D., { Prof. Bellevue Medical Col. Residence, No. 162 West 34th Street.

Louis F. Saxe, M.D., No. 61 West 36th Street.

J. J. Caldwell, M.D., No. 206 Warren Street, Brooklyn.

P. R. Steaton, Astor House.

Messrs. Close & Hannam, Merchants' Coffee House, 100 Duane Street, N. Y.

Messrs. Smith & McNeil, No. 189 Washington St., N. Y.

The Cookers are now for sale at all first-class Stove and Range and House-furnishing dealers everywhere. Descriptive Pamphlet free by mail.

NEW AND OLD BOOKS.

PRICED CATALOGUE, No. 26,

Containing many scarce books in American History; Old English Literature; Voyages and Travels; Poetry and the Drama; Facsimile; Scarce Old Trials, etc., etc. Just published, and will be sent to any address free.

DAVID G. FRANCIS,

17 Astor Place,

DEALER IN NEW AND OLD BOOKS.

ILLINOIS TEN PER CENT. LOANS.

BURNHAM, MCKINLEY & CO.,

Counsellors-at-Law and Loan Brokers,
CHAMPAIGN, ILL.

Money loaned on improved farms in Central Illinois at ten per cent. semi-annual interest. Have been twelve years in the business. Send for circular.

1
er
e
e
it
r.
s
s
e
r
l.
e
l
t
e
r
l